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ABSTRACT

This report offers a critique, from a linguistic viewpoint of the approach to grammatical description and prescription found in commonly used Australian school textbooks in 1987. Attention was directed solely towards grammatical content. A review of 41 primary and secondary level texts was conducted. All texts were published in Australia, and all appeared during the years 1979-1987. The selection was made to ensure thorough and representative coverage of the traditional approach of grammar study in Australia. Findings revealed that the great majority of texts showed no awareness of the principles and practice of modern linguistics, and their content was dated by 50 years. A more structural approach is offered that overcomes the shortcomings of these more traditional grammars without losing sight of the many valid and important insights of the traditional versions. A brief overview is provided for teachers and students of the main aspects of English that need to receive additional emphasis for better understanding of the English language. Prescriptive and descriptive grammars are defined as are the grammatical categories of verbs, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions. A glossary of grammar terms is appended. (Contains 28 references.) (NAV)

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APPLIED LINGUISTICS ASSOCIATION OF AUSTRALIA

ENGLISH GRAMMAR IN SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS:
Towards a consistent linguistic alternative

Rodney Huddleston

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR IN SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS:

TOWARDS A CONSISTENT LINGUISTIC ALTERNATIVE

Rodney Huddleston
The University of Queensland

Occasional Papers Number 11

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NOTATIONAL CONVENTIONS AND ABBREVIATIONS

Ordinary italics are used for citing sentences, words and other linguistic forms.

Bold face italics give abbreviated titles of the school textbooks referred to; full titles are given in the References.

Underlined bold face is used for contrastive emphasis and highlighting.

[] square brackets enclose relevant context for an example: *[I didn't know] the match started tomorrow* represents the clause *the match started tomorrow* considered as occurring in the context *'I didn't know ___'*

# indicates the first (significant) occurrence of a technical term with an entry in the glossary.

* indicates that what follows is ungrammatical.

The following abbreviations are used for syntactic classes and functions:

A	Adjunct	P	Predicator
AdjP	Adjective Phrase	PC	Predicative (Complement)
AdvP	Adverb Phrase	PP	Preposition phrase
NP	Noun Phrase	S	Subject
O	Object	VP	Verb Phrase

INTRODUCTION

The last few years have seen the appearance of a remarkable number of new, revised or reprinted schooltexts which explicitly present a significant amount of English grammar of a largely or wholly traditional kind. There are teachers and others who are opposed on educational grounds to any kind of formal grammatical analysis in the classroom, but that is a debate I do not wish to enter into here: it is clear from the amount and commercial success of such material that considerable use is made of it, and one of the aims of this monograph is to provide a critique from a linguistic point of view of the approach to grammatical description and prescription found in these textbooks.

The monograph is based on a survey of a sample of such texts which I carried out during a special studies program in the second semester of 1987.[1] The work was undertaken as a contribution to a Queensland Department of Education resources review coordinated by John Carr, of the Curriculum Services Branch. Details of the 41 primary and secondary level texts are given in the references list (pp. 98-99), where they are ordered in terms of the abbreviated titles that I use to refer to them. All were published in Australia and appeared, either originally or in a subsequent edition or printing, during the eight years preceding the study, i.e. in the period 1979-1987. The selection was made in such a way as to ensure thorough and representative coverage of the traditional approach:[2] not all school textbooks follow this approach, of course, but the number that do is so large that it undoubtedly merits critical attention. In many cases the grammatical analysis constitutes only one part, often a relatively small part, of the whole text. It must therefore be emphasized that no attempt is being made here to provide an overall evaluation of such texts: attention is directed solely towards the grammatical content.

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[1] I should like to express my thanks to the Editor for invaluable advice on preparing the work for the present series, and to Roly Sussex, Ken Goodwin and two anonymous referees for useful suggestions on various earlier versions.

[2] For advice on the selection of texts I am grateful to John Carr, who provided an initial listing and classification of a large number of currently used texts, and to Chas Conlan, of the Brisbane booksellers Barker, Conlan & Ferret P/L, who was good enough to give me sales figures for a number of secondary texts, a useful indication of their commercial success.

We shall see that there is a good deal in the presentation of grammar found in the texts surveyed that is unsound, but I shall counterbalance this negative component of the monograph by offering an alternative, 'structural', approach to English grammar. It is a matter for concern that the great majority of the texts (***MasteringE*** is an exception, and so too, to a lesser extent, is ***LangLit***) reveal no awareness of the principles and practice of modern linguistics and give an account of the grammar that might have been written fifty years ago. In Australia, linguistics is a relatively new university discipline, the first chair in the subject having been founded at Monash University in 1965; the last twenty years, however, have seen a rapid expansion, and a large number of universities and other tertiary institutions now offer a range of courses in the subject. I would like to hope that the present work will help persuade some English teachers of the potential value of some training in this area. No one, I imagine, would advocate that school grammar should be based on the most recent advances in linguistic theory: much current analysis is far too abstract, theory-bound and controversial to provide the source for school materials. Nevertheless, there are worthwhile improvements we can make that do not depart too radically from traditional grammar and that do not involve any increase in difficulty or abstraction. What I am calling a 'structural' approach is thus one based on the principles of structuralism in the very broad sense in which it is typical of modern linguistics in general: I shall not be following the more particular and more formalized framework of any contemporary theory, such as transformational-generative grammar (or its several descendants and offshoots), systemic-functional grammar, and so on.

In summary, the main purposes of this monograph are to:

(a) identify the most pervasive misunderstandings concerning English grammar that are found in school textbooks;

(b) present a principled structural alternative that overcomes the shortcomings of traditional grammar without losing sight of the many valid and important insights that it contains;

(c) survey the main aspects of English that need to be highlighted in order for teachers and students to gain a better understanding of the English language.

Part 1 deals with general principles of grammar - principles concerning such matters as how we should define our grammatical categories (noun, verb, subject, object, clause, imperative, and so on), how we determine what categories are valid for English (do we need a dative case or a future tense, for example?), and the relation between prescriptive and descriptive grammar. The most important and far-reaching argument advanced here is that we need to make a clear distinction between notional, general definitions of grammatical terms and structural, language-particular definitions. Part 2 then presents a systematic examination, in the light of the principles put forward in Part 1, of a selection of the major grammatical categories in English.

PART 1. GENERAL PRINCIPLES

The presentation of the grammar in our texts is oriented towards the improvement of the student's use of English, but we can nevertheless distinguish, for the purposes of the present survey, between descriptive and prescriptive aspects of the material. The former involves grammatical analysis, introducing and explaining a variety of grammatical categories and using them to analyse a selection of sentences, while the latter is concerned with telling the student to use this expression or construction rather than that. Thus the definition of the #subject of a sentence as the performer of the action expressed in the #verb or of a #finite verb as one having a subject would come under the former heading, whereas a rule to the effect that in the future #tense a 1st #person subject requires *shall*, a 2nd or 3rd person subject *will* would belong under the latter. This distinction provides the initial organising basis for Part 1: in Section 1.1 we focus on principles of descriptive grammar, and in Section 1.2 on prescriptive grammar.

1.1 Descriptive grammar

In this section we will be concerned with two related questions: how should we define or explain the categories we use in grammatical analysis? and how do we decide what categories are relevant or appropriate in analysing English?

1.1.1 Defining grammatical categories

Consider such definitions as the following from *LivingE*: "A noun is the name of a person, animal, place or thing" (4); "A verb expresses action or state" (4); "The part of a sentence which tells us who or what does the action is called the subject" (6); "When the action indicated by the verb moves across from a doer to a receiver, the verb is transitive" (8); "the complement ... completes the sense of the sentence" (10); "The possessive case shows ownership" (13); "Tense means time" (20); "A verb is in the active voice when its subject performs the action denoted by the verb[; it] is in the passive voice when its subject is not actively engaged in the action denoted by the verb, but has that action done to it" (28-9) ... and so on. These are what are known as 'notional' definitions: definitions based on the meaning, the semantic properties, of the expressions being categorized, rather than on their grammatical properties. Virtually all

the definitions to be found in the texts surveyed are of this kind; there is, moreover, a very high degree of uniformity among the definitions found in different texts. The frequency with which they appear in text after text makes it easy to take them for granted, but when one does start to think critically about them it quickly becomes clear that they are thoroughly unsatisfactory.

Their inadequacy stems primarily from a failure to recognize a fundamental distinction between two levels at which grammatical categories need to be defined or explained: the **language-particular level** and the **general level**. At the language-particular level we are concerned with the question of what properties distinguish one category from another in the particular language being investigated. At this level, for example, we want to know what criteria determine that in (1) below *rejection* is a #noun, *rejected* a verb, or that in (2) *nonsense* is a noun, *stupid* an #adjective.

(1) i *Their rejection of the proposal infuriated him*
ii *The fact that they rejected the proposal infuriated him*
(2) i *This was nonsense*
ii *This was stupid*

At the general level, by contrast, we are concerned with what is common to a given category across different languages. Categories such as noun, verb, adjective, subject, past tense, etc., are clearly not unique to English, but figure in the grammars of many languages - indeed, a few (noun and verb, for example, though not the others just mentioned) are 'universal', appearing in all languages.

Now the definitions of traditional grammar tacitly aim to work at both these levels simultaneously - to permit the identification of instances of the category in the sentences of a particular language, whether it be English, French, Latin or whatever, and at the same time to elucidate it as a general category. But this simply cannot be done: we need different kinds of definitions for the two levels.

Let us illustrate the difficulties encountered by the traditional definitions by examining that quoted above for noun - the name of a person, place, animal or thing. If we try to

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apply this seriously at the language particular level, to decide which words in an arbitrary sentence of English are nouns, then we are led either to numerous wrong analyses or to a vicious circle. Suppose we interpret 'thing' to mean 'concrete object': clearly this will wrongly exclude from the noun class innumerable words that every grammarian agrees are nouns - words like *fact, idea, crime, anxiety, rejection,* etc. Suppose, on the other hand, we take 'thing' in a more abstract sense: we now have a vicious circle, for there is no way of determining whether a word denotes a thing that does not presuppose that we already know whether it is a noun.

We surely do not analyse *rejection* in (1) as a noun and *rejected* as a verb by deciding that the former denotes a thing while the latter denotes an action, or *nonsense* in (2) as a noun and *stupid* as an adjective because the former denotes a thing while the latter tells us more about 'this'. Anyone claiming that *rejection* and *nonsense*, unlike *rejected* and *stupid*, denoted things would do so because they knew on independent grounds that just the former are nouns. The criteria that we in fact use here, consciously or unconsciously, are based not on the meanings of the words but on their grammatical behaviour. In (1) *rejection* and *rejected* differ grammatically in such ways as the following: (a) *rejection* is a #singular form contrasting with #plural *rejections*, whereas *rejected* is a past tense form contrasting with present tense *reject*; (b) *rejected* has a direct #object, *the proposal*, whereas *rejection*, being a noun, cannot take an object but requires a prepositional construction: *of the proposal*; (c) *rejected* has a subject, *they*, whereas *rejection* has a #determiner, *their*, and *their* is replaceable by the #article *the*, an item that occurs distinctively with nouns; (d) if we add a #modifier, the noun *rejection* will take an adjective while the verb *rejected* will take an #adverb: compare *their immediate rejection of the proposal* and *they immediately rejected the proposal*. In (2) we can distinguish the noun *nonsense* from the adjective *stupid* by such properties as these: (a) if we add a modifier the noun will again take an adjective, whereas the adjective, like a verb, will take an adverb: compare *This is utter nonsense* and *This is utterly stupid*; (b) *nonsense* enters into such obvious noun constructions as *the nonsense which he spoke* (article + noun + #relative clause), whereas the adjective *stupid* does not: **the stupid which he talked* (where the asterisk indicates that what follows is ungrammatical). It is grammatical properties of this kind that must form the basis of our language-particular account: notional definitions will not work satisfactorily at this level.

Grammatical properties such as those we have been illustrating will not, however, provide a satisfactory definition at the general level. In English, for example, an important difference between nouns and verbs given above is that the former #inflect for #number, the latter for tense, but there are many languages where they are not distinguished in this way - languages where there is no inflection or, more strikingly perhaps, where there is no category of tense at all. At the general level, unlike the language-particular, meaning does provide a legitimate criterion: categories normally share a common core of meaning across languages. Thus it is always the noun category which contains the words denoting concrete objects (including persons and animals). Notice that I say 'contains': words denoting concrete objects do not exhaust the noun category. The English noun class, for example, includes words like *woman, boy, tree, bird* which do denote concrete objects and also words like the above *fact, idea, crime, anxiety, rejection* which do not. This is precisely why 'a word denoting a concrete object' will not do as a language-particular definition of noun, but it does not invalidate reference to concrete objects at the general level: at this level we are providing criteria not for classifying individual words but for naming categories whose membership we have already established by means of language-particular properties. Grammatical properties of the kind mentioned above will enable us to assign *rejection* and *nonsense* (in contrast to *rejected* and *stupid*) to the same word class as *woman, boy, tree, bird*, etc., and we then call this class noun because it is the one which contains the words denoting concrete objects, thus the one that is like the noun class in other languages.

As a second example, let us consider tense. "Tense means time", or words to that effect, say the texts (***Guide*** 35, ***LivingE*** 21, ***FormalE*** 67, ***Lang*** 1:55, ***SecEng*** 3:37, ***UsingBE*** 1:75, ***LangLit*** 1:22, etc.). Thus in

(3) i *She understood it in those days*
ii *She understands it now*
iii *She will understand it eventually*

we have past tense *understood* indicating past time, present tense *understands* indicating present time and future tense *will understand* indicating future time. But as soon as we

leave the most elementary examples such as (3), insuperable problems arise for this identification of time and tense:

(4) i *[I didn't know] the match started tomorrow*
ii *The match starts tomorrow*
iii *The match will start tomorrow*

(5) i *She lived in College last year*
ii *[He told me] she now lived in College*
iii *[Things would be easier] if she lived in College next year*

In (4) the time of the starting is the same, future, in all cases, but the tenses are different: past, present and future respectively. Conversely in (5) the tense of the verb (*lived*) is the same, past, in all cases, but the times are different, past, present and future respectively. Clearly tense is not at all the same thing as time. Tense is a category of grammatical form, time is a category of meaning. There is, certainly, a significant correlation between them but it is by no means a one-to-one correlation. For this reason notional definitions of the tenses at the language-particular level will frequently give wrong results: if we define past tense as a verb-form used to express past time, this will exclude *started* in (4i) and *lived* in (5ii/iii) although these are in fact past tense forms, and so on. Nevertheless, the correlation provides a basis for definitions at the general level: we will say that the general term past tense is applicable to a distinct category of the verb whose primary use is to locate the situation in past time. By language-particular grammatical criteria, *understood*, *started* and *lived* in (3)-(5) belong to the same verbal category, and we apply the general term past tense to this category on the basis of the use illustrated in (3i) and (5i): we regard this as the primary use because this is the one normally found in main (principal) clauses.

The same criticism can be made of the other notional definitions we find in the texts. Moreover, in the context of school grammar (as opposed to some of the more scholarly works in traditional grammar), the focus of attention is clearly on the language-particular level: the categories are introduced as part of a study not of language in general but of English in particular. Their wording and the context in which they appear thus lead us to interpret them as language-particular definitions, yet when interpreted in this way they

are woefully inadequate. Take one further example: the subject. Here we find two quite different notional definitions: a few of the texts define it in the traditional way as what the sentence is about (e.g. ***SentenceStr***:4), but the majority define it as the person or thing performing the action expressed by the verb (e.g. ***FormalE***:11, ***Lang*** 1:128, ***LangLit*** 1:164, ***UsingBE*** 1:80, etc.). An initial problem with the first definition is that what a sentence is about is often much less easy to decide than what its subject is. Consider an elementary example like *She slapped him* (where *she* and *him* refer, let us assume, to Jill and Max respectively). If this were uttered in response to the question *What did Jill do?*, it would be interpreted as being (primarily) about Jill but if it were a response to *What happened to Max?* it is more reasonable to say that it would be (primarily) about Max. Thus very often one cannot determine what a sentence is about without considering the larger context in which it occurs. It is not, however, necessary to consider the larger context to determine what the subject is (see Section 2.2.2.1). A further objection is that we can easily find examples where it isn't remotely plausible to suggest that the subject identifies what the sentence is about: *Nothing satisfies John* (surely about John, not 'nothing'); *Something has gone wrong with my computer* (about my computer, not 'something'); *You could buy a bar of chocolate like this for less than 6d before the War* (spoken, let us say, to someone not born before the War: clearly not about 'you'); *It looks as though we're going to be late* (clearly not about 'it': *it* doesn't here have any identifiable reference). As for the definition of the subject as the performer of the action, this does not allow for the contrast between #active and #passive voice, illustrated in active *Kim shot the intruder* vs passive *The intruder was shot by Kim*: the two sentences describe the same action (one performed by Kim) but they have different subjects, *Kim* in the first, *the intruder* in the second. There are, moreover, other problems for the definition besides those created by passives. Very many sentences do not express actions at all: *She likes you, It belongs to me, He resembles his father, There's too much sugar in it*, and so on. There can be nothing here satisfying the definition 'performer of the action', but all the examples contain subjects.

The notional definitions we find in these textbooks simply cannot sustain the most elementary critical scrutiny. How is it, then, it might be asked, that they appear in book after book, and have been doing so for generations? How do textbook writers and teachers get away with them? The answer, I believe, is that the students already have

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an 'internalized grammar' of the language. They have the ability to understand and produce sentences that they have never encountered before, and to account for this ability we must attribute to them a knowledge of the grammar of the language. It is of course tacit knowledge: the internalized grammar is below the threshold of their conscious awareness. One doesn't have to be able to say what the rules of grammar are in order to have such tacit knowledge of them; one way of characterising the linguist's or grammarian's task, indeed, is to say that it is to provide a model of the native speaker's internalized grammar, to make explicit the rules that are implicit in the speaker's use of language. There can be no doubt that categories such as noun and subject have psychological reality, that they are genuine categories of our internalized grammar. It is therefore often possible without too much difficulty to train students to recognize nouns and subjects; my argument is, however, that when students make correct identifications they do so by virtue of having made access (with the help of appropriate examples) to their internalized grammar, not by applying the schoolbook definitions. Instead of asking seriously which element in the sentence (if any) corresponds to the performer of the action (if any) and then labelling it 'subject', the students must be finding the subject on the basis of the grammatical properties which distinguish it in their internalized grammar and then unthinkingly saying that it represents the performer of the action.

Unhappily, there is evidence that the textbook writers are repeating the definitions in an equally unthinking way. Note, for example, that several of the texts which define the subject as the performer of the action also present the traditional definition of the active/passive contrast - namely, that in the active the subject is the performer of the action, whereas in the passive the subject is the patient or undergoer -, evidently unaware of the inconsistency between the definitions (***LivingE***:6, 28-9; ***Lang*** 2:8, 21; ***SecEng*** 2:4, 81). Passive sentences are even to be found in the examples and exercises immediately following the definition of the subject as the performer of the action (***UsingBE*** 1:80, ***SecEng*** 2:40) - and one exercise cites this definition of the subject and then asks students to manipulate a set of sentences in such a way as to change the subject while leaving the meaning intact, changing *The quiet man was pushing him*, for example, into *He was being pushed by the quiet man* (***Lang*** 3:4).

It is also worth observing that the texts contain a remarkable number of errors, cases where the analysis of particular examples is at variance with the standard traditional analysis that they purport to present. For example, ***Basics***:21 says that a 'typical sentence contains a verb, and will begin with a subject and end with an object' and gives three sentences to illustrate the point, the first two being *Whales are the biggest animals in the world* and *The parachutist floated gently towards the ground*. In the first *the biggest animals in the world* is labelled 'O' (object) but is of course traditionally a #complement; in the second *gently towards the ground* is labelled 'O' although it is not in fact a single element of sentence structure: traditionally *gently* is an adverb and *towards the ground* is an adverbial phrase. Similarly, we find errors in part-of-speech classification, in the analysis of verb-forms and tenses, in the classification of subordinate clauses, and so on. Some of these will be documented in Part 2: I mention them here because the frequency of the errors must be indicative of a weakness in the approach adopted. It is difficult to see how errors could occur on this scale if the definitions were sound and taken seriously.

The main point I have been making so far in this section is that the schoolbook notional definitions, construed, as surely they must be, as designed to apply primarily at the language-particular level, frequently give wrong or indeterminate results. An equally important objection to them, however, is that they embody a fundamentally mistaken conception of the relation between grammatical form and meaning. A central part of the grammarian's task is to describe how the formal categories are used to express meanings. From this point of view the schoolbook definitions are disastrous, for they begin by confusing the very things that we need to distinguish and relate. They simply cut off inquiry into the often quite complex relation between grammar and semantics, crucial to any understanding of how language works. The tense example we considered above illustrates this very clearly. If tense were identifiable with time, there would be virtually nothing else to say since the categories of past, present and future time can (at least within the context of school grammar) be taken for granted. The relation between tense and time is, however, quite complex. Although the primary uses of the past and present tenses are to express past and present time respectively (if this were not so, they would not satisfy the criteria for being so named), they have secondary uses too. Thus the present tense is commonly used for future time, in #main clauses (*The match starts*

tomorrow, 4ii) or, with fewer semantic restrictions, in certain kinds of #subordinate clause ([*He has to finish it*] *before he goes to bed*). The past tense may be used to correspond to this future-referring present tense in indirect speech ([*I didn't know*] *the match started tomorrow*, 4i, [*He said he had to finish it*] *before he went to bed*]), and it is also used with present or future time reference in #unreal conditional constructions (*Things would be easier if she lived in College next year*, 5iii), after the verb *wish* ([*I wish*] *I knew the answer*), and so on. The unthinking identification of tense and time short-circuits discussion of such constructions (all of them established to some extent already in the student's own usage) and a totally false impression is given of this area of grammatical structure.

As further illustration of this point consider the #possessive construction: the texts are unanimous in saying that the possessive case (or its marker, the apostrophe) is used to indicate possession or ownership. Yet they almost all of them go on immediately to illustrate this by giving (or eliciting via exercises) examples where it is patently absurd to suggest that the meaning expressed is that of possession or ownership: *a day's work* (***Guide***:18), *the trains' noise* (***Lang*** 1:8, ***SecEng*** 1:34), *a women's meeting* (***SecEng*** 2:197), *the babies' crying* (***SecEng*** 3:144), *the horses' success* (***UsingBE*** 1:35), *three men's work* (***UsingBE*** 2:35), *Julie's acting* (***LivingL*** 4:87), *my family's favourite show* (***LivingL*** 5:61), *the sailor's ship* (***ClassroomE*** 4:148, 5:138), *a city's destruction* (***Let'sCom***:32), and so on. Again, what should be a general definition ('possessive' applies to a grammatically distinct case-form or comparable grammatical construction which has as its most basic use the expression of possession) is presented as a language-particular one - and the opportunity is missed to heighten the student's linguistic awareness by investigating the range of interpretations that are associated with the possessive construction. Note, for example, that such an expression as *Renee's photograph* (***WatchL***:23) can be interpreted as "the photograph Renee took", "the photograph of Renee", "the photograph that Renee possesses" - and in various less salient, more context-bound ways too: "the photograph Renee has to frame (or describe)", and so on.

Associated with the failure to make a proper distinction between categories of meaning and categories of grammatical form is a widespread tendency to confuse linguistic

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expressions with the non-linguistic entities that they denote, a tendency particularly prevalent in the discussion of nouns. It is illustrated in such quotations as the following: 'adding suffixes to form people' (***SecEng*** 1:209; cf. also ***Guide***:16); 'adjectives describing nouns' (***SecEng*** 1:110; compare earlier, p. 58, 'adjectives describe people or things'), 'the noun that owns or possesses' (***SecEng*** 1:33), 'a verbal noun may, like any other noun, be something that is owned' (***FormalE***:94,) 'the person performing the action, *I*, precedes the verb' (***UsingBE*** 2:93), 'Richard is the subject because he is the person about whom we are speaking' (***LivingL*** 6:22), 'Carl Tiflin is the subject of the verb "wiped" - he is the one doing the wiping' (***Lang*** 2:9), 'List ten nouns found in the kitchen' (***LivingL*** 4:147), 'only certain pronouns ... can act as the subject of an action' (***Lang*** 2:129). It would not be valid to argue that these are harmless simplifications which it is pedantic to criticize: they are symptomatic of the fundamentally flawed conception of the relation between form and meaning that, as we have seen, underlies the treatment of English grammar in all of these texts.

I should add in conclusion that such confusion between linguistic expressions and what they refer to or denote is encouraged by the widespread failure to adopt any systematic convention (such as italics in the present monograph) to indicate that an expression is being cited rather than used ordinarily (***FormalE***, ***LivingE***, and ***MasteringE*** are commendable exceptions). Many of the texts present the rules of punctuation: it would be worth including among them the convention that cited forms (just like the titles of books, etc., which often are dealt with) should be distinguished by quotation marks, italics or underlining. We could then avoid such confusions as the following: 'Bellow is a verb because it tells us what the cow is doing' (***ClassroomE*** 6:31), 'where the second clause starts with therefore, nevertheless, so or even so' (***SentenceStr***:37), 'the contraction of it is' (***Mistakes***:1): these should be regarded as being incorrectly punctuated, just as is 'We went to see King Lear last night' (in the interpretation where what we went to see was a play).

1.1.2 Selecting grammatical categories

In the last section I took for granted the validity of the grammatical categories introduced in the texts and focussed attention on how they are defined. In this section, by contrast,

I want to argue that there are places where the traditional categories are not appropriate for English, where the principles of modern linguistics enable us to offer a simpler and more illuminating analysis of English grammar. This second weakness is, however, closely related to the first, for it again involves the relation between meaning and grammatical form.

As the examples of Section 1.1.1 show, we normally have a quite complex relation between meaning and form. The most elementary instances of a grammatical category will typically share some common meaning, but less elementary instances will depart from this meaning in varying degrees. Semantic categories presumably lie at the origin of grammatical ones, but as the process of #grammaticalization - the creation and development of a distinct grammatical category - proceeds, the original simple relationship is lost, at least in the great majority of cases. It then becomes essential to maintain a very clear distinction between categories of meaning and categories of grammar.

This is particularly important when one comes to compare one language with another, since languages differ in part with respect to which semantic categories they grammaticalize. We must not assume that all languages have the same grammatical categories: in writing the grammar for a language we must select those categories that are grammatically distinct in the language - those for which there are distinct grammatical properties at the language-particular level. The weakness of traditional grammar I am concerned with in this section is that it foists on to English a number of categories that are perfectly valid in Latin but have no relevance in the grammar of English - and this mistake is fostered by the failure to distinguish clearly between semantic and grammatical categories.

Consider again, as a first example, the category of tense - more particularly, the future tense. We have seen that our texts generally identify tense with time. Such an identification of tense with time, however, effectively takes it for granted that English has a future tense: the division of time into the three spheres past, present and future can be regarded as self-evident, and if tense is simply the same as time we will then of course have three tenses too, past, present and future. However, the question of what

grammatical categories a language has - more specifically, of whether it has a future tense - is an empirical one, to be decided by examining the structure of the language. Let us therefore investigate the status within the grammar of English of expressions such as *will take*. (To avoid being sidetracked by the prescriptive rule concerning *shall* and *will*, I restrict the discussion to constructions with 2nd or 3rd person subjects.)

English has a number of #auxiliary verbs which function as #dependents of the #main or lexical verb - the #perfect auxiliary *have* (*The twins have taken it*), the passive auxiliary *be* (*It was taken by the twins*, where *was* is the past tense form of the auxiliary *be*), and so on. One subclass of auxiliary verbs are the #modal auxiliaries, of which the most obvious members are *can*, *may* and *must*. At the language-particular level the category of modal auxiliary verbs is defined by the following distinctive grammatical properties: (a) They have only a subset of the inflectional forms that other verbs have - they have no present #participle (cf. **I regret not canning swim*), no past participle (**She has could swim since she was two*), no infinitive (to use, for the moment, the traditional term: **I'd like to can swim*); (b) They cannot combine (except in #coordination, as in *You can and must do it*): they are mutually exclusive (thus *She can do it*, *She may do it*, but not **She may can do it*, and so on); (c) They have no special form for the 3rd person singular (*She can swim*, not **She cans swim*).

Now when we examine the traditional future auxiliary *will* we find that all of these properties hold for it as well as for *can*, *may* and *must*: (a) The lack of participles and 'infinitive' is illustrated in the ungrammaticality of **It is willing rain soon*, **You have would help me for ages*, **I expect to will lose*; (b) It is mutually exclusive with *can*, *may* and *must*, witness **She will can do it soon*, **It may will rain tomorrow*, etc.; (c) It has no form **wills* for the 3rd person singular.

Thus *will* belongs with *can*, *may* and *must* (and one or two others) in a class of mutually exclusive auxiliary verbs. Notice, by contrast, that it is not mutually exclusive with the past and present tense inflections. On the contrary, it can combine with either tense, so that just as present tense *can* contrasts with past tense *could*, so does present tense *will* contrast with past tense *would* - compare

(6) i *He can't see them tomorrow*
ii *He couldn't see them yesterday*
(7) i *He won't see them tomorrow*
ii *He wouldn't see them yesterday*
(8) i {*I know*} *she can do it*
ii {*I knew*} *she could do it*
(9) i {*I know*} *she will do it*
ii {*I knew*} *she would do it*

(Again it is essential not to identify past tense with past time: *would*, like *could*, is often used without past time reference, as in *Would/Could you let me have it back tomorrow.*)

From a grammatical point of view it is thus clear that *will* belongs not with the tense markers but with the modal auxiliaries. *Will* often translates a future tense of a language such as Latin, but that is not a valid reason for analysing it as a future tense in English. In the grammatical structure of English there are only two tenses, past and present: *will* is a modal auxiliary, not the marker of a third tense. We have argued this on grammatical grounds, but it is worth adding, before we leave the example, that the reanalysis is also more illuminating than the traditional one from a semantic point of view. The traditional analysis suggests that the difference in meaning between, say, *is* and *will be* is primarily a matter of time, with the former referring to present time and the latter to future time. But we need only consider such examples as the following to see that this cannot be so:

	Present time	Future time
-*will*	*She is in Paris now*	*She is in Paris next week*
+*will*	*She will be in Paris now*	*She will be in Paris next week*

Notice that *She is in Paris next week* ('this is her schedule') and *She will be in Paris now* ('I assume she has kept to her schedule') are perfectly grammatical and meaningful. Thus both *is* and *will be* can be used for either present time or future time. The meaning difference between them cannot therefore be present time versus future time.

The modal auxiliaries are so called because they characteristically express various types of #modality. One type of modality is illustrated in the contrast between (10) and non-modal (11):

(10) i *He must have read it*
ii *He may have read it*
(11) *He has read it*

(11) presents his having read it as an assured factual statement, as something I know. The versions in (10), however, are qualified, less assured. (i) presents his having read it as a conclusion I am forced to rather than as something that I have immediate or direct knowledge of, while (ii) presents it as a mere possibility. Now one of the major uses of *will* is likewise to express this kind of modal qualification. This is very obvious in present time examples like *She will be in Paris now*, which is clearly less assured than *She is in Paris now*. But even with the future time examples there is some element of modal meaning: the form with *will* is again less assured than the form without it. This is evident from the fact that there are severe constraints on the use of the simple form *is* and the like with future time reference. Thus we can say *She is in Paris tomorrow* because we can know that this has been arranged, but we would not normally say *She is ill tomorrow* because being ill is not normally something that is arranged in advance (see Section 2.3.2.3). In this case we do not have the kind of knowledge that justifies the unmodalised assertion: what we would say (watching her overeat, for example) is the modalised *She will be ill tomorrow*.[3] The modal meaning is less obvious in these future time examples because of the frequent association between futurity and *will*. But this association is quite natural: it is in the nature of things that we should be less assured about the future than about the present and hence have a much greater need for modal qualification.

I have discussed this issue of the future tense in order to illustrate an alternative approach to the investigation of grammatical structure to that provided by traditional

[3] *She is ill tomorrow* would be acceptable in the context of, for example, a TV soap opera, here the situation would have been arranged in advance and we could thus have the knowledge to justify the more assured assertion.

grammar. I am not arguing that such a detailed account of the verbal system should be presented in school texts, but I hope to have shown how the abandonment of an approach which unthinkingly identifies grammatical categories with semantic ones can open the door to an investigation of the complex and fascinating relation between form and meaning. How far that investigation is pursued will obviously depend on circumstances, but surely any presentation of English grammar which does not even raise the issue of the relation between form and meaning must be rejected as unsatisfactory.

A second example of the way traditional grammar introduces categories inappropriate for English is to be found elsewhere in the verbal system, in the inflections. Traditional grammar distinguishes a large array of verb-forms classified according to tense, #mood, #voice, person, number, etc., and some of our texts similarly present tables of verb-forms stretching over several pages (***Guide***:35-38, ***FormalE***:68-73; also two full pages in ***LivingE***:25, 30). The tables contain both single-word forms (*takes*, *took*, etc.) and multi-word, or 'periphrastic', forms containing auxiliaries (*has been taking*, *will take*, *was taken*, etc.), but my concern here is exclusively with the single-word forms, the ones which involve inflection in the strict sense of the term. There are no less than thirty such forms according to the traditional analysis:

		Indicative		Subjunctive		Imperative
		Past	Present	Past	Present	Present
Finite forms	1st pers sg	*took*	*take*	*took*	*take*	
	2nd pers sg	*took*	*take*	*took*	*take*	*take*
	3rd pers sg	*took*	*takes*	*took*	*take*	
	1st pers pl	*took*	*take*	*took*	*take*	
	2nd pers pl	*took*	*take*	*took*	*take*	*take*
	3rd pers pl	*took*	*take*	*took*	*take*	

Non-finite forms	Infinitive	Past Participle	Present Participle	Gerund
	take	*taken*	*taking*	*taking*

When two or more inflectional forms are not overtly distinct, there is said to be #syncretism between them - and the above analysis postulates a massive amount of syncretism: it contains twelve occurrences of *took* and fourteen of *take*. Syncretism on this scale cannot be justified; the main reason why the traditional analysis has so many categories here is that they are needed in Latin to handle the overt differences between the forms. But, as I remarked above, it is very unsound methodology to analyse one

language on the basis of translation equivalents in another: if we want to know what categories are relevant to English we must see what contrasts are found in English itself, not assume in advance that the Latin categories will apply here too. No verb in English has contrasting forms for the so-called present #subjunctive, #imperative and infinitive, and there is accordingly no justification for recognizing these as distinct verb inflections: they can all be subsumed under a single form, which we will call the #base form (since the inflectional rules take it as the starting-point, deriving the other forms from it by affixation or vowel change). If we throw out the spurious categories we are left with the following much simpler set of forms:

Tensed forms	Past tense		*took*
	Present tense	3rd pers sg	*takes*
		Other	*take*
Non-tensed forms	Base		*take*
	Present participle		*taking*
	Past participle		*taken*

The only syncretism here is between present tense *take* (as in *They take great care*) and base *take* (as in *It is essential that he take great care*, *Take great care*, *They should take great care*, etc.): the former, unlike the latter, contrasts directly with the past tense and with the 3rd person singular present tense form (thus *They take great care* vs *They took great care* vs *She takes great care* - compare *They should take great care*, which does not contrast with **They should took great care* or **She should takes great care*). Many verbs also have syncretism between the past tense and past participle, and a few (such as *hit* and *put*) have both these syncretized with the base; the verb *be* is highly exceptional and has more forms than other verbs. A good deal more space would be needed to provide a full explanation of the revised analysis, but I hope that enough has been said to demonstrate that a much simpler and sounder analysis of English verb inflection is available than that offered by traditional grammar.

It follows from what we have been saying that satisfactory definitions of grammatical categories at the general level must incorporate a condition of grammaticalization. Thus 'noun' will apply to a grammatically distinct word-class containing among its most basic members words denoting concrete objects, 'future tense' will apply to a grammatically

distinct verbal category whose primary use is to locate the situation in future time, 'subjunctive' will apply to a grammatically distinct verbal category characteristically used in subordinate clauses in contexts of non-factuality, and so on. We will then have no use for a given general term in analysing a particular language if there is no corresponding category that is grammatically distinct from others in that language.

1.2 Prescriptive grammar

We noted above (p. 4) that **descriptive grammar** aims to discover what the rules are that make up the grammatical system underlying people's actual use of the language, whereas **prescriptive grammar** gives us rules to follow. There is no inherent conflict between the two: they simply have different goals. School grammar, not unreasonably, has a large prescriptive bias, but linguistics is of course a purely descriptive subject. This does not mean, however, that linguistics is irrelevant to prescriptive grammar. For prescriptive grammar is logically dependent on descriptive grammar. If, for example, you want to teach someone, prescriptively, the rules of standard English, then you first need to consult a descriptive grammar of standard English to find out what the rules actually are. In this section, therefore, we shall be concerned with an evaluation of the prescriptive content of the textbooks in terms of its consistency with the findings and principles of descriptive linguistics.

Again we shall see that there is a good deal in it that is open to objection and improvement. I shall make my criticisms and suggestions under three headings: the need to recognize different varieties of English, the need for a sound empirical basis for prescriptive rules, and the relevance of the distinction between rules of grammar and rules of style.

1.2.1 The need to recognize different varieties of English

I take it as self-evident that one objective of an English course will be to heighten the student's sensitivity to language, and one component of such a sensitivity must be an awareness that there exist different varieties of the language: standard versus non-standard, formal versus informal, written versus spoken, and so on. Yet with the

exception of ***MasteringE*** (cf. the section 'Usage Brings Change' appearing in many chapters) and to a lesser extent ***LangLit*** (cf. 1:117; 2:45, 127; 3:153), the textbooks adopt what may be called a non-variationist approach to prescriptive grammar. They operate, that is, with a simple contrast between correct and incorrect, instead of recognizing that what is inappropriate in one context may be perfectly acceptable in another.

This is a matter for deep concern: it is surely quite unsatisfactory to group together in a single category of 'mistakes' such examples as

(12) *He didn't do nothing*

(13) i [*Who is knocking? -*] *It is me*

ii *My father is stronger than me*

(***Mistakes***: 4, 22, 21). (12) is clearly ungrammatical in standard English.[4] But (13i/ii) are not: they have *me* in a grammatical position where the rules for formal English require *I*, but they are perfectly normal and acceptable in informal #register, the term I will use for a variety distinguished on the formal/informal dimension. I give two examples because although we could easily substitute *I* for *me* in (13ii), thus making it appropriate for formal register, such a substitution would be very much less natural in (13i), for the content quite strongly favours informal register. This is a not uncommon weakness of the texts: that they give examples for correction where the content favours the informal register in which they are already expressed over the formal register that the student is expected to substitute. Thus in presenting the rule which says that a clause should not end with a #preposition, a rule which (whatever its status in formal English) clearly does not apply to informal register, ***LivingL*** 5:106 gives such examples as *Which street is the car parked in?* vs *In which street is the car parked?*, where the content invites an informal conversational contextualization. Similarly for the choice between *can* and *may* for permission: ***WatchL*** 3:23 treats *Can I have a glass of milk, please?* as wrong, but the most likely contextualization is in a family environment, where *can* is the normal form. Some examples given to illustrate a given rule are so unidiomatic that they

[4] Except when spoken with contrastive emphasis on *nothing* in order to deny a previously uttered or implied *He did nothing*.

would generally be avoided even in formal register as too likely to sound pedantic: *The child in the game was I* (***Facts***:25), *The people in that photograph are we* (***NewAppr***:17).

The view implicit in the prescriptive sections of the great majority of these texts is thus that only sentences conforming to the rules of the formal register of standard English are grammatically correct, and again this reflects the traditional approach to prescriptive grammar. Fowler, for example, one of the best known authors of prescriptive manuals, writes in his discussion of case in interrogative pronouns, "*Who* is often used in talk where grammar demands *whom*, as in *Who did you hear that from?*" (1923:723). But this contrast between talk and grammar is invalid, indeed confused. Both informal and formal registers are rule-governed; the difference is not that one lacks rules while the other has them, but that the rules differ somewhat from one to the other: each has its grammar. What justification can there possibly be for trying to correct sentences that already conform to the rules of informal standard English when they are used in informal contexts?[5]

1.2.2 The need for a sound empirical basis for prescriptive rules

As I remarked above, prescriptive grammar is logically dependent on descriptive grammar: prescriptive rules can only be justified if they reflect descriptive ones. There are, however, a number of traditional prescriptive rules that are widely ignored in actual usage, even in formal register (e.g. that *shall* rather than *will* is required with a 1st person subject in the so-called future tense, or that a clause should not end with a preposition); an enlightened or sensitive prescriptive grammar should surely give some recognition to this fact. However, if we classify prescriptive grammars as conservative or liberal according as they do or do not follow the traditional rule in such cases, we find that the texts surveyed are overwhelmingly conservative.

[5] Before leaving this issue, I should add that there is one feature of the books that is inconsistent with this unenlightened approach to prescriptivism. Just about all of them present the rules for the spelling and punctuation of verbal contractions, as in *I've* [*finished*], *They're* [*ready*], etc., but these contractions are characteristic of relatively informal English: the formal variety would have *I have* [*finished*], *They are* [*ready*]. Were these books to be totally consistent, they would present only the formal, uncontracted forms.

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There is a remarkable uniformity among the texts. They do not all deal with precisely the same topics, but leaving aside ***MasteringE***, we find only one issue where they take contrasting positions - the issue of what verb-form occurs with a singular collective subject.[6] The conservative position that a singular verb is required (as in *The jury has not yet reached a verdict*) is espoused in ***LivingL*** 5:55, 6:121, ***Let'sCom***:66, ***EverydayE***:54, ***LivingE***:20-21, ***Guide***:38, whereas ***Corrections***:53, ***Facts***:24, ***FormalE***:22 adopt the liberal position allowing a plural verb. For the rest, if an issue is dealt with at all, it is the conservative line that is presented.

A number of the rules given, however, are rejected or severely qualified in *The Oxford Guide to the English Language* (Weiner and Hawkins, 1984 - henceforth ***OxGuide***): it is difficult to see any justification for asking a schoolteacher to correct usage accepted by an authoritative work of this kind. For example, ***Lets'Com***:49, ***UsingBE*** 2:123, ***LivingE***:20 insist on a singular verb with *none* (*None of the birds shows* - not *show* - *much fear in our presence*), whereas ***OxGuide***:164 writes: "The pronoun *none* can be followed either by singular verb and singular pronouns, or by plural ones. Either is acceptable, although the plural tends to be more common" (thus *None of the birds shows* ... or *show* ..., with the latter more likely). ***LivingL*** 6:121 would have us say *A small number of supporters works very hard*, whereas ***OxGuide***:118 has the rule: "*A number (of)* is constructed with the plural", giving *A small number of supporters work very hard*. ***LivingL*** 5:106 corrects clause-final prepositions, while the entry in ***OxGuide***:166 begins: "It is a natural feature of the English language that many sentences and clauses end with a preposition, and has been since the earliest times. The alleged rule that forbids the placing of the preposition at the end of a clause or sentence should be disregarded." Compare similarly ***Facts***:24, "The infinitive should not be split by words such as *really*

[6] ***MasteringE*** contrasts with the sample as a whole in adopting a liberal stance on quite a number of issues: *shall* vs *will* (16), *can* for permission (22), *who* vs *whom* (31), clause-final prepositions (49), *between* vs *among* (73), and so on. (The "predictions that *whom* will not survive the end of the century", however, seem to me wildly implausible: they very much underestimate the influence of the conservative prescriptivists.) Nevertheless, ***MasteringE***'s approach is by no means wholly liberal. The 30 units of 'English Expression' each contain a section entitled 'Sentence Correction' followed by one entitled 'Usage Brings Change': the liberal attitude and the material on variation appear predominantly in the latter, whereas the former is not markedly different from the other texts (cf. the unqualified condemnation of *for you and I* (55), *When a person is wrong, they should admit it* (70), *less objections* (73), etc.).

and *always*", with ***OxGuide***:175, "It is often said that an infinitive should never be split. This is an artificial rule that can produce unnecessarily contorted sentences ... it is quite natural in speech, and permissible in writing, to say *to really let the fact that these mothers were mothers sink in* [Kingsley Amis]." Or (to give an example involving lexical choice rather than grammar in the strict sense) compare the strict specification of ***LivingL*** 6:47, "*Farther* means more distant, *further* means to a greater extent" (and likewise ***Mistakes***:1), with the more liberal interpretation of ***OxGuide***:107, "*farther* [is] now only used where the sense of 'distance' is involved ... [but] even in this sense many people prefer *further*."

I should add that in comparing the texts with ***OxGuide*** I have chosen a work which is itself more conservative than the most authoritative, large-scale and up-to-date descriptive grammar of English, Quirk et al.'s *Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (1985). On the rule requiring *shall* rather than *will* for a 1st person future, for example, the latter says, "This prescription is old-fashioned and is nowadays widely ignored", whereas ***OxGuide***:172 writes, "The use of *will* for *shall* in the first person is not regarded as fully acceptable in formal usage". A sensitive approach to prescriptive rules should acknowledge such disagreement and divided usage. Again, it is quite unsatisfactory for ***Mistakes***:2/44 simply to brand *I will be at your house at nine o'clock* as a mistake, undifferentiated from (13), *He didn't do nothing*, or from (12), *It is me/My father is stronger than me* - especially as there is evidence that the traditional rule is observed even less in Australian English than in British English.

1.2.3 Rules of grammar versus rules of style

The descriptive linguist draws a distinction between a rule of grammar and a rule of style. Violation of the former results in a non-sentence, something that is ungrammatical; violation of the latter, by contrast, results in a sentence that is grammatical but stylistically unacceptable or infelicitous. Compare, for example, the following, which appear in an exercise in ***Corrections***:57 without recognition of the difference between them:

(14) i *That is an attractive pattern on the man's tie who is mayor*
ii *The lady was wearing a hat on her head which was made of straw*

The first is simply ungrammatical in standard English: a relative pronoun can never be separated from its antecedent by the possessive marker in this way. (14ii), on the other hand, is stylistically unacceptable, but not ungrammatical. The rules of grammar allow for a relative clause to be displaced over a preposition phrase (cf. *He said something to her which made her change her mind*): what is unacceptable about (14ii) is that here application of the rule makes distractingly salient an unintended interpretation where it is her head rather than her hat that is made of straw.

The significance of this distinction is that rules of style can typically be justified or motivated on purely linguistic grounds, whereas rules of grammar very often cannot. Thus the stylistic rule violated in (14ii) is motivated by considerations of clarity and ease of interpretation. There are, however, no analogous arguments for preferring, say, *for you and me* over *for you and I*. The different varieties simply follow different rules of grammar. The rules of one variety make reference to coordination, the rules of the other variety do not. We cannot say that one is intrinsically better than the other. It is not valid to argue that *for you and me* is correct on the grounds that *me* is the form required when there is no coordination, that is, we say *for me*, not **for I*. This argument is invalid because it begs the question. It simply takes for granted that the rules determining the choice between #nominative case (*I*, *he*, etc.) and #accusative case (*me*, *him*, etc.) are as they are in the prescribed variety. In the prescribed variety the rules make no reference to coordination, so that a coordinated pronoun has the same case as the corresponding non-coordinated one. Thus since we have *I went to town* (not **Me went to town*) and *She did it for me* (not **She did it for I*), the coordinated pronouns will show the same distinction: *Kim and I went to town* (not **Kim and me*), *She did it for Kim and me* (not **for Kim and I*). But in the proscribed variety the rules do refer to coordination: a coordinated pronoun takes nominative case whatever the grammatical function, so that we have *Kim and I went to town* (not **Kim and me*) and *She did it for Kim and I* (not **for Kim and me*). Again, both varieties are systematic and rule-governed: it is just that the rules are different. There is no basis for saying that the first set of rules is 'better' than the second. In particular, we could not argue that the

first set is better than the second because it is simpler (simpler precisely because it makes no reference to coordination). If simplicity of the grammar were a valid criterion we would always prefer regular forms over irregular ones, but it is easy to find forms that are regular in non-standard English but irregular in the standard variety, so that the non-standard past tense form *teared* (as in *I teared it*), for example, is simpler than standard *tore*, and so on. Similarly, it will be clear from the discussion in Section 1.1.2 that it would be invalid to argue that *To what are you referring?* is better than *What are you referring to?* on the grounds that *to* is a preposition and since the *pre-* element means "before" prepositions must come before their nominal complements. Prepositions are so called because in the most elementary or basic constructions they precede their complement (the corresponding items in such languages as Japanese follow their complements and are hence called 'postpositions'): there is no theoretical requirement that they should always occur in this position, just as there is no theoretical requirement that a past tense verb should always express past time - general terms, we have argued, are applied to categories on the basis of their most characteristic use.

It is important to recognize, therefore, that the reason for preferring one form over another may be not a **linguistic** matter, but a **sociolinguistic** one - a matter not of the intrinsic linguistic merits of the forms but of social attitudes to them. Take, as a final example, the so-called double negative construction illustrated in (12), *He didn't do nothing*. Prescriptivists are wont to explain their condemnation of the non-standard construction on the grounds that the two negatives 'cancel each other out' (cf. ***Corrections***:63). But this argument is based on a fallacy, for the rule of logic which says that two negatives make a positive applies to the **logical form** of sentences, not to their **grammatical form**. The logical form is a representation of their meaning - and in the logical form of (12), spoken as a non-standard variant of *He didn't do anything*, there is only one negative. It is not uncommon in languages for a single logical negative to be expressed twice in the grammatical form: compare French *Il n'a rien fait*, where both *n'* and *rien* are grammatically negative items. It is no more valid to condemn (12) on logical grounds than it would be to condemn the French: the difference is simply that they belong to different social varieties. Notice, indeed, that standard English too has a construction where a single logical negative is expressed twice grammatically. An alternative to *They don't drink either wine or beer* (one logical negative, one grammatical

negative) is *They drink neither wine nor beer* (one logical negative, two grammatical negatives). No one pretends that the two negatives cancel each other out here, because the construction is fully acceptable in the standard variety. There is thus no intrinsic linguistic reason for preferring *anything* to *nothing*, especially when one considers that ***anything*** is already a marked alternative to *something*; the difference is that the former belongs to a variety that happens to be the standard one. It is perfectly reasonable to urge students to use *anything* rather than *nothing* here, for it is clearly to their social advantage to do so, but it is not reasonable to suggest that the use of ***nothing*** is illogical or intrinsically inferior. I emphasize this point because it is very easy to make the inference that if a certain grammatical construction is inferior, then the person using it is inferior too. A much healthier approach would be to point out that the non-standard variety is just as rule-governed, just as internally consistent as the standard one - and perhaps also to discuss the socio-political factors involved in the historical emergence of one dialect rather than another as the standard variety of English.

PART 2. SELECTIVE OVERVIEW OF GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

2.1 Preliminaries

In this part of the paper I shall survey a selection of the major grammatical categories of English in the light of the principles set out in Part 1. The topics selected are very largely confined to those that receive significant attention in some at least of the textbooks. The survey will be divided into two major sections, one centred on the #clause, the second on the #parts of speech. First, however, it will be helpful to draw attention briefly to three further features of the framework we shall be using.

2.1.1 Grammatical classes and grammatical functions

We will make a distinction between two kinds of grammatical category: classes and functions. The distinction can be explained by reference to an elementary example like

(1) *The boss destroyed the letter*

Here we say that *the boss* and *the letter* belong to the same class, namely noun phrase, but have different functions, namely subject and object respectively. We assign them to the same class because they are the same kind of expression as far as the overall language system is concerned: specifically, in this case, they are both phrases having a noun as the major or #head element. We assign them to different functions because they stand in different relations to the verbal element *destroyed*. When we talk of the function of an element we are concerned, then, with its relation to other parts of the construction in which it occurs (or to the construction as a whole: we can say either that *the boss* is subject of *destroyed* or subject of the sentence). When we talk of the class of an expression, on the other hand, we imply a comparison with other expressions in the language: we put it in a set of like expressions. The distinction is quite traditional as it applies in the analysis of sentences or clauses such as (1), but we will systematically apply it also in dealing with smaller expressions. Thus in *young children*, for example, *young* and *children* belong respectively to the classes adjective and noun, but we label their respective functions 'modifier' and 'head'.

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2.1.2 Prototypical instances of a category

We shall frequently need to invoke a distinction between prototypical and non-prototypical instances of a category. The former are the most clear-cut ones, those satisfying the full set of distinctive grammatical properties for the category. For example, *dog*, *girl*, *idea*, etc., are prototypical nouns, having the following properties: (a) they take as dependents articles (*the dog*), adjectives ([*a*] *big dog*), relative clauses ([*the*] *dog that was barking*); (b) they occur as head element in phrases functioning as subject (*The dog barked*), object (*I saw the dog*), complement of a preposition ([*I gave it*] *to the dog*), etc.; and (c) they enter into the inflectional contrast of number (singular *dog* vs plural *dogs*). Such words as *perseverance*, *wetness*, etc., also belong to the noun class, but they are not prototypical members: they have properties (a) and (b) but not (c) - there are no plural forms **perseverances*, **wetnesses*. Or, to take an example of a function rather than a class, *She is on the committee* has *she* as prototypical subject: it has nominative case (in contrast to accusative *her*), it precedes the verb, it is the element with which the verb agrees, and so on. But in *There is one student on the committee* the subject is non-prototypical: grammarians do not indeed all agree on what the subject is in this construction. If, following most traditional accounts, we take *one student* as subject, it is non-prototypical by virtue of its position; if, following most modern linguists, we take *there* as subject, it is non-prototypical because the verb (at least in formal English) agrees not with it but with *one student* (as evident from the change of verb-form in *There are two students on the committee*).

Languages are not completely regular simple systems designed by mathematicians: our description has to be able to cater for a good deal of irregularity, untidiness and fuzziness of boundaries. Limitations of space make it necessary to concentrate on prototypical instances in the following survey, but the importance of this distinction is such that it will be worthwhile making explicit from time to time that what is said applies to prototypical, but not necessarily all, instances of the relevant category.

2.1.3 The concept of phrase

The concept of #phrase adopted here - quite standard in modern linguistics - differs significantly from that found in traditional grammar. Consider such an example as

(2) *The vase of flowers is on the table*

There is some equivocation in the texts as to whether the subject is *the vase of flowers* or just *vase*. ***UsingBE*** 2:123 says that *the vase of flowers* is the subject of the sentence but *vase* is subject of the verb *is*; this, however, is surely an unnecessary distinction. Traditional grammar tends to take *vase* as subject, but there is much to be said for saying that the subject is the larger expression, *the vase of flowers*. Note, for example, that one of the distinctive grammatical properties of the subject is that its position typically changes as we switch from declarative to interrogative (compare the above with *Is the vase of flowers on the table?*), and clearly the inversion involves the verb and *the vase of flowers*, not just *vase*. Certainly *the vase of flowers* forms a grammatical unit - but traditional grammar provides no clear designation for it. The standard modern treatment, which I am advocating here, invokes the concept of phrase, analysing *the vase of flowers* as a 'noun phrase'. *The vase of flowers* is a noun phrase (NP) by virtue of having a noun, *vase*, as its head.

Within this conception *rather tall for her age* in *She was rather tall for her age* will be an adjective phrase (AdjP), by virtue of having the adjective *tall* as head, and *very carefully* in *She drove very carefully* will be an adverb phrase (AdvP), by virtue of having the adverb *carefully* as head. Similarly, *of flowers* in (2) will be a preposition phrase (PP) as it has a preposition, *of*, as head. Traditionally, *of flowers* is said to be, rather, an adjective phrase because it is functionally like an adjective. However, this functional likeness can be handled more directly and less misleadingly by saying that it is a modifier of the noun *vase*. Thus in the NP *a quite magnificent vase of flowers* the expressions *quite magnificent* and *of flowers* are partly alike and partly different. The likeness is a functional one - they stand in the same relation to the head *vase* -, and we bring out this likeness by assigning them to the same function, namely modifier. The difference is one of class - they are different kinds of expression -, and we account for this difference by assigning them to different classes, AdjP and PP respectively.

An additional advantage of this conception of phrase is that it provides for a clearer and more consistent account of structures involving auxiliary verbs. In examples like *She is singing* the texts treat the expression *is singing* as a verb, as well as each of the

components *is* and *singing*. Thus ***SecEng*** 3:36 says, "Some verbs consist of one word only, others are made up of a number of words". There is, however, no comparable analysis for nouns, adjectives, etc., and when the multi-word verbs are called compound verbs (e.g. ***WatchI***, 3:50, ***Facts*** 8, ***SentenceStr*** 13, etc.) this is a very different sense of 'compound' from that which we have in 'compound noun' or 'compound adjective'. *Goldsmith* is a compound noun in that it is formed by adding two stems together: the result is a single word belonging to the class noun; *is singing*, by contrast, is not a single word, as is evident from the fact that other words can be added in the middle, as in *is always singing*. We can avoid such inconsistencies by treating *is singing* not as a verb but as a verb phrase (with *singing* as head).

The head-based conception of phrase allows for a phrase to consist of a single word. In [*She likes*] *long walks in the bush* the noun phrase has the structure modifier + head + modifier, where the head is an obligatory element and the modifiers are optional: we can drop the first (leaving *walks in the bush*), the second (leaving *long walks*) or both (leaving just *walks*), and in this last case we have the minimal structure, head alone. The phrase is a unit intermediate between the word and the clause, and there is no more reason to insist that a phrase should consist of at least two words than there is to insist that a clause should (cf. the imperative clause *Hurry!*).

2.2 The clause

2.2.1 The relation between sentence and clause

Traditional grammar takes the #sentence and the word as the two most basic units of grammar. The special status of the word is reflected in the division of the grammar into two major components: #morphology and #syntax. Morphology is concerned with the form of words, while syntax deals with the way words combine into sentences. In syntax, therefore, the word is the lowest unit, the sentence the highest. It is, however, extremely difficult to devise clear and effective criteria for determining when, in speech, one sentence ends and the next begins. The traditional definition of a sentence as the expression of a complete thought does not help us because of its circularity: we cannot tell whether something expresses a complete thought unless we know on independent

grounds whether it is a complete sentence. For example, in

(3) i *I invited Kim. She was living next door at the time.*
ii *I invited Kim, who was living next door at the time.*

we surely do not decide that *I invited Kim* is a sentence in (i) but only part of a sentence in (ii) by asking whether it expresses a complete thought: we use grammatical and/or punctuational criteria. The grammatical criteria, however, are not always clearcut, and intonation in speech is a good deal less decisive than punctuation in writing, so that sentence boundaries are often quite problematic. For this reason there is much to be said for giving descriptive priority to the clause over the sentence - for taking the clause rather than the sentence as the starting-point for syntactic description.[7]

The clause can be defined in terms of its structure. The prototypical clause consists of a subject (S), a #predicator (P) - the function of the verbal element - and optionally one or more further functions, such as object (O):

(4) *the dog | barked* S | P
(5) *I | opened | the door* S | P | O

A sentence then has the form either of a single clause, as in (6), or a sequence of clauses, as in (7):

(6) *The dog barked.*
(7) *The dog barked | and I opened the door.*

The clearest cases where a sentence consists of a sequence of clauses are those where the clauses are joined by #coordinating conjunctions (*and, or, but*, etc.), as here, but there does not have to be an overt marker of coordination (cf. the classic example *I came, I saw, I conquered.*) - this is the main reason why it can be difficult to distinguish between a sequence of clauses constituting a single sentence and a sequence of clauses each forming a separate sentence.

[7] In accordance with this proposal, I shall henceforth cite examples without an initial capital letter unless they are specifically intended as examples of sentences.

The construction where one clause follows another within a sentence, as in (7), is to be distinguished from that where one clause is embedded within another, as in

(8) *He said that the dog barked.*

Unlike (7), sentence (8) has the form of a clause: *he* is subject, *said* is predicator and *that the dog barked* is object. A clause which is embedded within a larger one is called a **subordinate clause**; a **main** (or **principal**) **clause** is one that is not so embedded. In (8) *that the dog barked* is therefore a subordinate clause and *he said that the dog barked* a main clause. Subordinate clauses are very often distinguished internally from main clauses (e.g. by the #subordinating conjunction *that* in this example), but not always. Thus (4) is a main clause in (6) and (7), but a subordinate one in *He said the dog barked.*

Traditional grammar generally does not distinguish the structures of (7) and (8) in this way, but treats the latter no less than the former as involving a sequence of two clauses, *he said* (main) and *that the dog barked* (subordinate) (cf. ***LivingE***:56). This, however, does not allow us to bring out the structural similarity between (8) and (9):

(9) *He said some strange things*

That the dog barked stands in the same relation as *some strange things* to [*he*] *said*, and this is best shown by having them both functioning as object in a clause with *he* as subject and *said* as predicator; the difference is then simply one of class, with the O function filled in (8) by a subordinate clause, but in (9) by an NP. Notice, moreover, that the traditional account is inconsistent with the idea that a main clause is 'complete in itself' (***LivingL*** 6:100), for if a main clause is what is left after any subordinate clauses have been removed, the main clause of *What caused the plane to crash was never known* will be the obviously incomplete *was never known* (***LivingE***:56).

We now have an elegant way of capturing the distinction between the coordination and subordination of clauses. In coordination the clauses are of equal syntactic status, and this is reflected in the fact that neither is contained within the other. In subordination the clauses are of unequal status, and this is shown by having the one of lower status,

the subordinate one, embedded within the other. Subordination is easiest to recognize when the subordinate clause is functioning either within the structure of a phrase or else as subject or object of the larger clause. Thus in *the man who came to dinner stole the silver* it is clear that the clause *who came to dinner* is subordinate because it is part of the NP *the man who came to dinner* (which in turn is part of the main clause - its subject), and in *that he was guilty was obvious* or *we knew that he was guilty*, the subordinate status of the clause *that he was guilty* is similarly evident from its function as subject of a larger clause in the first and object in the second. More difficult are cases like (10), contrasting with the coordination of (11):

(10) *he was rich although he was honest*

(11) *he was rich but he was honest*

Prototypically, as here, the constructions can be distinguished by the fact that the subordinate clause can be moved to front position, but the coordinated one cannot. Thus *although he was honest, he was rich* is a variant of (10) but *but he was honest, he was rich* is not a variant of (11).

Traditional grammar classifies sentences as #compound, #complex or #simple. A compound sentence contains two or more main clauses, a complex sentence contains at least one subordinate clause, and a simple sentence is neither compound nor complex. Thus (7), *The dog barked and I opened the door*, is compound; (8), *He said that the dog barked*, is complex; and (6), *The dog barked*, is simple. This is not, however, a very illuminating classification, for it involves two quite independent and somewhat disparate criteria: whether the sentence has the form of a sequence of clauses (if so, it is compound), and whether it involves clause subordination (if so, it is complex). The independence of the criteria is evident from examples like (12):

(12) *The man who came to dinner stole the silver but he was arrested the next day.*

for here the criteria for both the compound and complex classes are satisfied. Within the framework suggested above we will have two separate classifications, one applying to sentences, one to clauses: **sentences** will be compound or non-compound, and **clauses** will be complex or simple. Sentence (12), for example, is compound (in contrast to non-

compound *The man who came to dinner stole the silver.*), and the clause *the man who came to dinner stole the silver* is complex (in contrast to simple *the man stole the silver*). Note that one subordinate clause may have another embedded in it, as in *I know he said that the dog barked*, where *that the dog barked* is embedded within *he said that the dog barked*, and the latter is in turn embedded within the main clause that forms the whole sentence: this is a further reason for treating the complex/simple contrast as applying to clauses rather than sentences.

2.2.2 Basic clause structure

As a preliminary to our discussion of clause structure it will be helpful to introduce a distinction between #basic and non-basic clauses. Basic clauses are main, not subordinate; declarative, not interrogative or imperative; active, not passive; positive, not negative; and so on. The point of the distinction is that it permits a significant simplification of the grammar. Instead of trying to handle the quite heterogeneous array of clause constructions all at once, we first describe the basic ones directly and then deal with the various non-basic constructions indirectly, in terms of the way they differ from the basic ones. For example, declarative *she has left* is a basic clause with the structure subject (*she*) + predicator (*has left*), whereas interrogative *has she left?* is non-basic and will be described as deriving from the basic structure by moving the auxiliary verb to the left of the subject. We will here confine our attention almost exclusively to the structure of basic clauses - the most prototypical clause constructions.

Basic clauses contain a subject and a predicator, alone or accompanied by one or more other elements. The predicator is the function filled by the verbal element - the lexical verb together with any auxiliary verbs it may have dependent on it. This is reasonably straightforward and does not need further discussion at this point: we will examine the structure of the verb phrase in Section 2.3.2.2 below. The subject figures quite prominently in the textbook discussions and hence merits separate treatment here. For the rest, we will look in detail only at predicatives (as in [*she seemed*] *quite cheerful*) and objects ([*she read*] *the letter*); most other elements in clause structure can be subsumed under the category of adjuncts - adjuncts of time, place, manner, reason, etc.

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2.2.2.1 The subject

We will first consider the subject at the language-particular level. It is sharply distinguished from other functions in the structure of the English clause by a cluster of grammatical properties:

(a) Form-class.
The subject is normally an NP (*his guilt* [*was obvious*]) or a subordinate clause (*that he was guilty* [*was obvious*]).

(b) Position.
The basic position of the subject is before the predicator (immediately, as in *Kim* [*read the letter*], or with an intervening adjunct, as in *Kim* [*quickly read the letter*]). This position is not obligatory, but it very often provides the grammatical signal of subjecthood: in *Kim likes Pat* the only overt feature distinguishing *Kim* as subject from *Pat* as object is position. Under certain conditions the order of subject and adjunct or subject and predicative can be reversed: compare basic *a procession of boy-scouts appeared over the hill* (S-P-A) with non-basic *over the hill appeared a procession of boy-scouts* (A-P-S), or basic *the moral objections are more important* (S-P-PC) with non-basic *more important are the moral objections* (PC-P-S). But we cannot reverse subject and object in this way: *Kim read the letter* (S-P-O), but not **the letter read Kim* (*O-P-S). This is because such a reversal would create a greater risk of misinterpretation, for semantically subject and object are similar elements in that both characteristically express participants in the situation. From a communicative point of view it is then particularly important to signal clearly the distinction between subject and object so as to avoid potential confusion as to the roles of the participants in the situation – in action clauses, for example, we need to know who is actor and who is patient. (See Section 2.2.2.2 for the distinction between object and predicative.)

(c) Position in interrogative clauses.
In most interrogative main clauses the subject occupies the very distinctive position following the 'tensed' verb (the verb carrying the past or present tense inflection): [*have*] *you* [*read it?*], [*does*] *Kim* [*like Pat?*]. This can be used indirectly as a test applying to declaratives: given the declarative clause *it was raining yesterday*, we can

convert to the corresponding interrogative (*was it raining yesterday?*) and thus identify *it* as subject.

(d) Case.

With the handful of pronouns which have contrasting nominative and accusative forms (*he* vs *him*, and so on), subject function (at least in finite clauses) requires nominative case: *he* [*went out*] but not, in standard English, **him* [*went out*]. A pronoun in predicative function can be in either nominative or accusative case, according to register (formal [*it is*] *I* vs informal [*it is*] *me*), but the object is always accusative. Once again it is the object that it is most important to keep clearly distinct from the subject. As with property (c), we can use case as an indirect criterion for identifying the subject in examples like *Jill saw Max*, where there is no case inflection: substituting case-variable pronouns gives us *she saw him*, thus showing *Jill* to be subject, *Max* object.

(e) Verb agreement

Where the tensed verb has person-number properties, they are normally determined by agreement with the subject. Thus in *more important are the moral objections* (to choose an example where the subject is not in its basic position) we can identify *the moral objections* as subject because this is the element that determines the selection of *are* in contrast to *is*. As before, this property provides an indirect criterion in examples where the verb carries no person-number properties: if we replace past tense *liked* in *Kim liked the colour* by a present tense form, we need 3rd person singular *likes* to agree with *Kim*.[8]

In the context of school grammar, properties (a)-(c) will presumably be the most useful diagnostics for the subject, with (d) and (e) having something of the character of prescriptive rules. In the great majority of examples, however, (a)-(c) are quite sufficient for the purpose.

As we saw in Section 1.1.1, the texts uniformly invoke notional criteria rather than

[8] Although both *Kim* and *the colour* are 3rd person singular, we can see that it is *Kim* that the verb agrees with, for replacing *the colour* by a plural has no effect on the verb whereas replacing *Kim* by a plural requires a corresponding change in the verb.

grammatical criteria like the above in defining the subject. These notional criteria were easily shown to be unsatisfactory for the purposes of a language-particular definition. One of them - that the subject corresponds to the #actor, the performer of the action expressed in the verb - is invalidated at this level by the fact that many clauses do not express actions (e.g. *he resembles his father*). It is also invalidated by the passive construction, where the subject normally corresponds to the #patient rather than the actor in action clauses (e.g. *the intruder was shot by Kim*). The correlation with actor does, however, provide for a general definition. As a first approximation (a more accurate account would involve us in lengthy comparison between different types of languages, which would be out of place in the present context), we can say that the general term subject applies to a grammatically distinct function in clause structure which normally corresponds to the actor in basic clauses expressing an action. The reference to basic clauses eliminates the problem caused by passives, for the passive is a non-basic construction: active (i) is syntactically simpler than its passive counterpart (ii) in the pair

(13) i *Kim shot the tiger*
ii *the tiger was shot by Kim*

By the grammatical criteria (a)-(e), *the tiger* in (ii) belongs to the same category as *Kim* in (i), and this category qualifies for the general term subject because *Kim* in basic (i) expresses the actor. Thus in (13ii) *the tiger* is the grammatical subject even though the tiger isn't the actor. We can test this claim by applying the criteria. For example, if we change *tiger* to *tigers*, we must also change *was* to *were*. Or again, if we replace *the tiger* by a personal pronoun we need nominative *they*, not accusative *them* - and so on for the other criteria. Similarly, although *he likes it* has no actor, *he* belongs with the *Kim* of (13i) by the language-particular criteria and the category is named by reference to its semantic role in action clauses such as (13i).

The second notional definition we considered earlier identified the subject with the topic of the clause (with what the clause is primarily about). We will not build this into our general definition of subject, because in some languages which have subjects there is no significant correlation between this function and the topic. Nevertheless, in English and many other languages, there is such a correlation: other things being equal, the subject

is likely to pick out the topic. Thus if we take a pair of clauses such as active *Kim interviewed Robin* and passive *Robin was interviewed by Kim*, which describe the same situation but differ in their choice of subject, we note that the former is likely to be preferred in a context where we are talking primarily about Kim, and the latter in a context where we are talking primarily about Robin.

2.2.2.2. Object and predicative

In this section we will be concerned with the clause functions illustrated in the final elements of

(14)	i	*Max* | *hired* | *a good typist*	S | P | O
	ii	*Max* | *was* | *a good typist*	S | P | PC

In (i) *a good typist* is object (O), in (ii) it is predicative - or, more fully, predicative complement (PC). (The most usual traditional term for the latter is simply complement, but as this is now standardly used in a much broader sense I have thought it better to introduce the more specific term.) Verbs which take an object are called #transitive, those which take a predicative are called #copulative. The transitive class is very large, whereas the copulative one is relatively small: *be* (by far the most frequent), *seem*, *become*, *remain*, etc.

Most of our texts cover objects, but somewhat fewer mention predicatives. The distinction between them is nevertheless an important one both syntactically and semantically, so that it undoubtedly merits some attention here, especially in view of the frequency of the construction shown in (ii).

At the language-particular level O and PC are distinguished by the following grammatical properties:

(a) PC can be filled by an AdjP, but O cannot. Thus the NP *a good typist* can be replaced by, say, *quite brilliant* in (14ii) but not in (i): *Max was quite brilliant*, **Max hired quite brilliant*.

(b) O can normally become S though the process of passivization, as when active *Max hired a good typist* is changed to passive *a good typist was hired by Max*, with the function of *a good typist* switching from O to S. PC can never become S in this way: *Max was a good typist* has no passive counterpart **a good typist was been by Max*.

(c) The grammatical number of O is independent of S, whereas prototypically PC agrees in number with S. In (14i) either *Max* or *a good typist* could be replaced by a plural without affecting the other: *they hired a good typist, Max hired two good typists*. But in (ii) *Max* and *a good typist* agree, so that if we change one we must also change the other: *they were good typists*, not **Max was good typists* or **they were a good typist*.

(d) In O function pronouns with contrasting cases appear in the accusative: *Max hired him/*he*; in PC function formal register selects nominative, informal accusative: *it was he* [formal], *it was him* [informal].

Turning now to the general level, we note that O is semantically similar to S in that they both characteristically refer to participants in the situation expressed in the clause: what distinguishes them is their specific role as participants. In basic action clauses S normally refers to the actor, O to the patient, the one who undergoes the action. In basic clauses expressing sensory perception, S refers to the perceiver, O to the stimulus, as in *Max saw the elephant*, with Max perceiver and the elephant stimulus. Comparable differences are found in other semantic classes of clause. As with S, we base the general definition on action clauses (and for the same reason as before confine ourselves to a first approximation): the general term object applies to a grammatically distinct function in clause structure which normally corresponds to the patient in basic clauses expressing an action. PC is, however, semantically very different. It characteristically serves to express an attribute of the subject-referent, not to pick out a second participant. This is clearest when it has the form of an AdjP: there is obviously only one participant in the situation described by *Max is quite tall*, namely Max, with *quite tall* giving an attribute of Max. It also applies, however, to examples like *Max was a good typist*, where *a good typist* again does not stand for a participant but expresses an attribute of Max - compare *Max typed well*. The general term predicative thus applies to a grammatically distinct clause function which characteristically serves to express an

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attribute of the subject-referent.

Some of the texts confuse O and PC. As noted earlier, ***Basics***:21 analyses *whales are the biggest animals in the world* as S-P-O instead of S-P-PC, and the same mistake is found in ***Corrections***:67 for *Bev Jones is a tennis player* and *she is a champion*. These same texts also assign an S-P-O analysis to *the parachutist floated gently towards the ground* and *she will be playing at Wimbledon this year* instead of S-P-A-A: the AdvP *gently*, the PPs *towards the ground* and *at Wimbledon*, and the NP *this year* are all adjuncts, not objects. AdvPs and PPs never function as object. NPs of course do, and it is only a very restricted type of NP that is found in adjunct function - mainly temporal ones like *this year*, *next week*, etc. We can distinguish the adjunct *this year* from the object *this year* in, say, *we have completely wasted this year* by a number of criteria. First, O but not A can normally become S through passivization: *this year has been completely wasted*, but not **this year will be being played at Wimbledon*. Second, *this year* in O but not A function can be replaced by the pronoun *it*: *we have completely wasted it*, but not **she will be playing at Wimbledon it*. Third, the corresponding interrogative for *this year* in A function is the adverb *when*: *when will she be playing at Wimbledon?*, but not **when have we completely wasted?*.

2.2.3 Clause type

In this section our concern will be with the grammatical categories illustrated in

(15) i *you are generous* [Declarative]
ii *be generous* [Imperative]
iii *are you generous?* [Interrogative]
iv *how generous you are!* [Exclamative]

This dimension of classification is traditionally called 'sentence type', with 'type' used in a technical and quite specific sense. In the light of what was said about the relation between sentence and clause in Section 2.2.1, however, it will be clear that a more appropriate term is 'clause type'. Note, for example, that the sentence *The police will question you but don't tell them who did it* contains three clauses and we have three selections, not just one, from the type dimension: the main clauses *the police will*

question you and *but don't tell them who did it* are respectively declarative and imperative, while the subordinate clause *who did it* is interrogative. Given the limitations of space, we will confine our attention in the remainder of this section to main clauses.

At the language-particular level the categories are distinguished by their grammatical form. Imperatives have a base form verb (thus *be*, not *are*) and allow a 2nd person subject to be omitted. Interrogatives are marked by the inversion of subject and tensed verb and/or the presence of one of the interrogative words *who, whom, whose, which, what, when, where, why* (cf. *why are you so generous?, who is generous?*). Exclamatives are marked by one or other of the exclamative words *how* and *what* (cf. *what a generous person you are!*). Declaratives are then defined negatively as lacking the distinctive grammatical properties of the non-basic types.

At the general level declarative, imperative, interrogative and exclamative are definable as grammatically distinct clause classes whose members are characteristically used to express the semantic categories statements, directives, questions and exclamations respectively. (I use the modern term 'directive' rather than the traditional 'command' so as to more clearly cover requests, instructions and the like as well as orders: *please be so kind as to open the door*, and *allow to cool completely* - an example taken from a recipe - are hardly commands!) The correlation between the grammatical and semantic categories is far from one-to-one (cf. Section 1.1.1). Thus declarative *passengers are requested to remain seated* would normally be used as a directive, as would interrogative *would you mind sitting down*, and imperative *sleep well* would normally be used as a wish rather than a directive (the four semantic categories given above being far from exhaustive). This is why it is important to keep the two sets of categories conceptually distinct - and why the association with the semantic categories can provide general definitions of the grammatical ones, but not language-particular definitions.

Most of the textbooks use a single set of categories, with the semantic terms as labels: the implication is that the categories are simultaneously semantic and grammatical. Only ***Guide***:66 presents the classification in terms of declarative vs imperative vs interrogative vs exclamatory, but these categories are defined semantically, so that the grammatically interrogative sentences *Will you stop talking, Jenny* and *How could you!* are given as

imperative and exclamatory respectively.[9] ***Lang*** 1:143 introduces six categories: statement, exclamation, order/command, request, question and wish, but nothing is said about how they differ. There is clearly no grammatical justification for a six-term classification; the wish example (*It would be good if everything was in its place*) belongs grammatically with the statement (*This room is in a mess*), and likewise the order/command and request belong together (*Get this place tidied up, Please see if you can put a few things away*). Nor indeed is the classification defensible on semantic grounds: why are we given just these six categories? Why not also apology, offer, promise, threat, etc.? Once the condition of grammaticalization is abandoned, the list of categories can be extended rapidly.

Just as it is important to distinguish between grammatical form and meaning, so it is important to distinguish both of these from categories defined in terms of final punctuation: full stop, question mark or exclamation mark. Notice, for example, that sentences with imperative form are sometimes punctuated with a full stop (e.g. *Please complete the enclosed form.*), sometimes with an exclamation mark (e.g. *Get out of my sight!*); a number of the texts, however, allow only for full stops here (e.g. ***EverydayE*** 4, ***LivingL*** 5:32, ***SentenceStr*** 7.25). The confusion is most obvious in ***EverydayE***:4 and ***ExercisingE***:4, where the definitions incorporate both semantic and punctuational criteria. The former has the four categories statement, question, command and exclamation (with statement and command both ending in a full-stop), while the latter omits commands, recognizing only the three categories statement, question and exclamation, ending respectively with full-stop, question-mark and exclamation-mark.

The problem stems from the fact that exclamation does not strictly belong in a contrastive set with statement, directive and question: it belongs on a separate dimension. Instead of saying that (15i), *you are generous*, and (15iv), *how generous you are!*, belong to mutually exclusive semantic categories, it is better to regard them both in the first instance as statements. The crucial property of statements is that,

[9] Confusion in the opposite direction is also found: "A sentence that is intended to be a question but is written as a statement, requires a question mark[, as in] *You are going straight home after school?*" (***Guide*** 8). It is not "written as a statement"; rather, it has the grammatical form of a declarative.

prototypically at least, they are true or false; questions and directives, by contrast, are not: the former have answers and the latter can be complied with. Thus (15i) and (15iv) are alike in that in uttering either of them I would commit myself to the truth of the proposition that you are generous. The difference between them is that (15iv) has an emotive, exclamatory component of meaning lacking in (15i). And this exclamatory component of meaning can appear not just with statements but also with directives and questions: (15iv) is an exclamatory statement, *Get out of my sight!* an exclamatory directive and *How could you do such a thing!* an exclamatory question.

2.2.4. Voice: active and passive clauses

We have already had occasion to refer to the distinction between active and passive clauses illustrated in such pairs as

(16) i *Kim ate the apple* [Active]
ii *the apple was eaten by Kim* [Passive]

The terms active voice and passive voice are applied both to clauses and to verb phrases: thus both clause (i) and its verb phrase *ate* are in active voice, and likewise clause (ii) and its verb phrase *was eaten* are in passive voice. Our focus in this section is on the clause.

The active is the simpler, more elementary construction, so that we are regarding passives as non-basic clauses, to be described in terms of their differences from corresponding actives. In prototypical examples like the above the difference can be stated in terms of an operation deriving the passive from the active. This operation involves three changes:

(a) The object of the active (*the apple*) becomes the subject of the passive.

(b) The subject of the active (*Kim*) becomes the complement of the preposition *by* in the passive. (The term 'agent' is commonly used for the function of the *by* phrase as a whole.)

(c) The auxiliary verb *be* is added to the verb phrase before the main verb (*eat*), which

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takes on the past participle form (*eaten*).

This operation effectively provides an account of the prototypical passive at the language-particular level.

At the general level we will say that active and passive apply to grammatically distinct but systematically related clause constructions, characteristically differentiated in part in the verb phrase, such that in clauses expressing actions the subject normally corresponds to the actor (the active participant) in the active and to the patient (the passive participant) in the passive.

The textbooks simply say that in active clauses the subject is the performer of the action whereas in passive clauses it is the undergoer (e.g. ***FormalE***:89, ***LivingE***:28-9, ***Lang*** 2:21). The wording implies that the definition provides language-particular criteria, but of course it does not, as is evident from examples like active *the patient underwent surgery* (where the subject-referent has the patient, undergoer role) or the active-passive pair

(17) i *the staff hold the new boss in high esteem*
ii *the new boss is held in high esteem by the staff*

(where there is no action). We have seen that such examples create no problem when general and language-particular definitions are distinguished. The grammatical relation between (ii) and (i) is the same in (17) as in (16), being describable in terms of changes (a)-(c), so that (17i) and (17ii) belong to the same constructions as (16i) and (16ii) respectively - and these constructions are then named on the basis of semantic properties of action clauses such as (16).

Beside the 'full' passive construction illustrated above, we find the 'agentless' passive seen in *the apple was eaten, the new boss is held in high esteem*. Unlike the subject, the agent is a grammatically optional element, and one major reason for selecting a passive construction rather than an active is that it enables us to leave out what would have to be expressed in the active. Thus we can say *the house was built in 1964*, without mention of the builder (whose identity may be unknown or, if the issue is how

old the house is, irrelevant), but we cannot say **built the house in 1964*: we need to supply a subject. Agentless passives receive little explicit mention in the texts (because the focus is on voice as a category of the verb [phrase] rather than of the clause) but they represent an important construction; they are in fact approximately four times as common as full passives (Quirk et al. 1985:164).

2.2.5 Finite and non-finite clauses

The distinction between finite and #non-finite clauses is illustrated in:

(18)	i	[*I'm glad*] *that she will be present*	[Finite]
	ii	[*I'm keen*] *for her to be present*	[Non-finite]
(19)	i	[*the guy*] *who was leading them* [*stumbled*]	[Finite]
	ii	[*the guy*] *leading them* [*stumbled*]	[Non-finite]

Main clauses (with very minor exceptions) are finite: the contrast applies in the domain of subordinate clauses. Its significance is that the structure of non-finite subordinate clauses differs more radically from that of comparable main clauses than does that of finite ones. In (18), for example, the comparable main clause is *she will be present*; finite (i) differs from this simply in the presence of the subordinating conjunction *that*, which is, moreover, omissible; non-finite (ii), on the other hand, contains the conjunction *for*, the special marker *to* and has its subject in the accusative case (*her*, not *she*). Furthermore, a number of verbal contrasts can be made in (i) but not in (ii): *will be* can be replaced by *may be*, *was*, *is*, etc., but equivalent replacements are not available in (ii). And in (ii) the subject is grammatically optional when it is recoverable from the main clause: [*I'm keen*] *to be present*. The same points apply to (19), where the comparable main clause is *the guy was leading them*. Finite (i) differs simply in the substitution of the relative pronoun *who* for the subject. Non-finite (ii), however, lacks a subject altogether, and also the auxiliary verb – and hence it further lacks such verbal contrasts as those available in (i) between *was leading*, *led*, *leads*, *will lead*, *should lead*, etc.

Insofar as they are explicit on the matter, the texts treat non-finite constructions as phrases, not clauses (e.g. ***FormalE***:108, ***LivingE***:44, ***Guide***:48). Thus (18ii) and (19ii) are analysed as clauses, but (18ii) and (19ii) as phrases. Such a distinction, which is

common but by no means universal in traditional grammar, obscures important similarities between the constructions. Although, as we have been pointing out, the non-finites depart further from the structure of main clauses than do finite subordinate clauses, they still have important structural similarities with them. The structure of non-finite constructions, no less than that of finite ones, is describable in terms of the functions subject, predicator, object, predicative, adjunct, etc. Thus *present* is predicative in both members of (18) and likewise *them* is object in both members of (19). Non-finites very often lack a grammatical subject, but this is not sufficient reason for denying them the status of clauses, given that: (a) in some constructions, such as (18ii), a subject is permitted; (b) when the subject is missing it is nevertheless understood from context, as in (19ii), where the understood subject is *the guy*; and (c) a major subclass of finite clauses - namely imperatives, such as the above *be generous!* - likewise more often than not have an understood rather than overt subject. The structural similarities between (ii) and (i) in such pairs as the above can best be handled by including non-finite constructions in the clause category, and then the differences will be dealt with by reference to the contrast of finiteness.

To a large extent, the finiteness of a clause can be determined from the first (or only) verb of its predicator. If the verb is tensed (i.e. is a past tense or present tense form), the clause is finite. (18i) is finite because *will* is a present tense form (cf. Section 1.1.2), while (19i) is finite by virtue of past tense *was*. If the verb is a participle, the clause is non-finite. (19ii) has a present participle (*leading*), while [*the goods*] *stolen by the thieves* [*were never recovered*], which is likewise non-finite, has a past participle (*stolen*). The base form (e.g. *be*, *take*, etc.), however, is found in both finite and non-finite clauses: when the verb has this form, we need to consider other properties of the clause to determine its finiteness. The three major constructions involving the base form are illustrated in

(20) i *be tactful* [Finite]
ii [*it is essential*] *that she be tactful* [Finite]
iii [*it is essential*] *for her to be tactful* [Non-finite]

The first, the imperative, is included with the finites because it is virtually restricted to

main clauses - and also because it is like prototypical finites, in contrast to non-finites, in allowing auxiliary *do* in the negative (compare imperative *don't believe it* with tensed *I don't believe it*). The subordinate construction in (ii) goes with the finites because it differs quite minimally from a clause with a tensed verb: many speakers indeed would allow *is* to replace *be* here (*it is essential that she is tactful*). (iii), by contrast, differs markedly from tensed constructions, as observed in our discussion of the very similar example in (18). The non-finite construction with a base form verb is called **infinitival**; usually, as here, it contains the marker *to*, but after a handful of verbs (*see, hear, make, let*, etc.) the *to* is omitted, as in [*he wouldn't let*] *her be told*.

In traditional grammar the categories finite and non-finite apply in the first instance to verbs: larger constructions are then classified as finite or non-finite according to whether or not they contain a finite verb. This requires us to cater for (20) by postulating syncretism - i.e. that we say there are different verb-forms even though they are not overtly distinct. There is, however, no verb in English which exhibits an overt difference of form in these constructions: it is for this reason that we have simplified the traditional inflectional paradigm of the verb by conflating six present subjunctive forms, two imperative forms and the infinitive into a single base form (cf. Section 1.1.2). We thus distinguish between verb and clause classification: finiteness applies to the clause, while the primary contrast in the verb is now between the tensed and non-tensed forms. This is surely a clearer way of doing things, given that the finiteness of such clauses as we have in (20) is not determinable by simply looking at the verb: we have to consider the larger context. Moreover, the traditional definition of a finite verb as one that is limited by person and number (i.e. agrees with the subject in respect of these categories) is very unhelpful at the language-particular level because English has so little subject-verb agreement - there is no agreement in (20i) or (ii), and even in past tense clauses we find agreement only with the verb *be*.

Curiously, all the texts which define 'finite verb' say that it is one which has a subject (e.g. *Lang* 2.18, *LangLit* 2.59, *LivingE* 49). It is something of a puzzle where this derives from, for it is very different from the traditional definition, given in the last paragraph. The textbook definition is, moreover, clearly mistaken: finites may lack a subject, as we have seen for imperatives, and non-finite forms do not in fact exclude

subjects, as is evident from (20iii) or, to give a participial example, [*they decided to appoint Jill,*] *she being the only one with significant experience.*

2.2.6 Relative clauses

One class of subordinate clause that receives a significant amount of attention in the texts is the relative clause. We will examine briefly in turn the three major subcategories of relative construction that need to be distinguished - the #restrictive, the #non-restrictive and the #fused.

The most central and frequent is the restrictive relative clause illustrated in

(21) i [*they expelled the boy*] *who had defaced the memorial*
ii [*the proposal*] *which they had put forward* [*was unacceptable*]
(22) i [*he soon spent the money*] *that they gave him*
ii [*he soon spent the money*] *they gave him*

Clauses like those in (21) contain one of the '*wh*' series of relative words, consisting of the pronouns *who, whom, whose, which* and the adverbs *when, where, why*; clauses of the kind shown in (22) are optionally introduced by *that* - it is omissible provided it is not in subject function (compare [*he soon spent the money*] *that remained*, where *that*, being subject, is not omissible). *That* differs from the *wh* relative words in that it has to occupy first position in the clause - it cannot for instance follow a preposition (thus *that* can substitute for *which* in [*the knife*] *which he was cutting it with*, but not in [*the knife*] *with which he was cutting it*). (22ii) will be referred to as a #zero relative (since there is no overt marker of subordination) and (22i) as a #*that* relative.

Non-restrictive relative clauses are found in

(23) i [*Kim,*] *who lived next door,* [*had heard nothing*]
ii [*Kim finished in 37 minutes,*] *which was quite an achievement*

Restrictive and non-restrictive relatives are most easily distinguished by intonation: the non-restrictive is spoken as a separate intonation unit, whereas the restrictive is

intonationally bound to its antecedent. In writing, non-restrictives are normally set off by commas (or stronger punctuation, such as dashes or parentheses). Semantically, the content of a restrictive relative is presented as an integral part of the larger message, whereas that of a non-restrictive is presented as separate, parenthetical. Typically the content of a restrictive relative is integrated into the larger message because it is needed to restrict the denotation of the antecedent noun - hence the term 'restrictive'. Thus in

(24) i *the necklace which Elvis had given her was in the safe*
ii *the necklace, which Elvis had given her, was in the safe*

the restrictive (i) would normally be used in a context where there is more than one necklace: *which Elvis had given her* then serves to restrict this set of necklaces to the one given by Elvis, whereas the non-restrictive (ii) would be used in a context where there is only one necklace, so that the content of the relative clause is not needed to define which necklace is being referred to.

There are several grammatical differences between restrictive and non-restrictive relatives:

(a) Zero and *that* relatives are confined to the restrictive construction.[16]

(b) In non-restrictives, *which* may function as a determiner to a noun head: [*he may not be there,*] *in which case you have nothing to fear.*

(c) Proper noun antecedents normally allow only non-restrictives: *who lived next door* in (23i), for example, could not be spoken or punctuated as a restrictive relative.

(d) Restrictives always function in the structure of an NP; non-restrictives may likewise have a noun as antecedent, as in (23i), but they may also have a clause (or part of a clause) as antecedent, as in (23ii).

[16] Occasional examples of non-restrictive *that* are found, but they are infrequent enough for one to be able to ignore them at an introductory level. *The bomber, that was refuelled, was ready for take-off*, given in ***EverydayE***:113 as one of two examples of the way conjunctions may link one clause to another, is hardly a natural-sounding sentence; I suspect it was intended as a restrictive relative, in which case the commas should have been omitted.

The third, fused, kind of relative construction looks superficially like a subordinate interrogative clause - compare

(25) i [*they gave her*] *what she needed* [Fused relative]
ii [*they asked her*] *what she needed* [Interrogative]

(25i) differs from a prototypical relative in that there is no overt antecedent. Instead, the antecedent and relative are 'fused' together, so that *what* is equivalent to *that which*: 'they gave her that which she needed'. The interrogative *what* in (25ii) is not replaceable by *that which*: a paraphrase here would be 'they asked her the answer to the question "What did she need?"'. *What* and *whatever* are the only *wh* words that occur freely in the fused relative construction, whereas the interrogative construction allows the full range; thus in (25ii) but not (25i) we can replace *what she needed* by *who she was, which she preferred, why she was angry*, and so on.

The texts tend to introduce relative clauses under the heading 'relative pronouns': the grammatical sections are usually organized primarily around the parts of speech rather than around the clause. As a result a number of them ignore the zero relative construction illustrated in (22ii), [*he soon spent the money*] *they gave him*, for there is of course no relative pronoun here.[11] For the same reason relative clauses introduced by the adverbs *when, where* and *why* ([*in the days*] *when inflation was virtually non-existent*, [*the reason*] *why she resigned*, etc.) are likewise ignored in some of the texts (***UsingBE***, ***LivingL***, ***Let'sCom***, ***SecEng*** 1, ***Guide***, etc. ignore both zero and the adverbs, ***LivingE*** just zero, ***Lang*** 2 just the adverbs). ***LangLit*** 2:98 covers *when, where, why* - but only by incorrectly classifying them as pronouns. Notice, moreover, that the non-restrictive construction, as observed above, also allows expressions like *in which case*, where the relative word is again not a pronoun. Since there are thus several different cases where relative clauses do not contain a pronoun, it would be a good deal better to introduce them under some such heading as clause subordination than under pronouns in a review of the parts of speech.

[11] ***MasteringE*** 112 talks of the relative pronoun being 'occasionally' omitted, but the zero relative of (22ii) is very far from being rare: in constructions where it is grammatically permitted it is at least as common as the type with a *'wh'* pronoun or overt *that* (cf. Quirk 1957).

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A good deal of what is said on relatives is prescriptive in nature - sometimes with little empirical basis to support it. Three of the texts (***FormalE***:35, ***Facts***:29, ***Mistakes***:21) say that *which* or the *wh* words in general are confined to non-restrictives; this is (at least as far as *which* is concerned) a traditional rule, but it is not one that is followed in actual usage - compare ***OxGuide***:186, "Both *which* and *that* can be used in restrictive relative clauses". The rule would exclude such examples as *the social position which he was striving to maintain, the moment for which I had been waiting*, etc., which are both perfectly acceptable (the second belonging to formal register). ***Guide***:20 rules out *that* with human reference. There is certainly a tendency to prefer *who* when the pronoun is in subject function, but the statistical results given in Quirk (1957) suggests that this is not so when the pronoun is object and ***OxGuide***:190 accepts such examples as Evelyn Waugh's *the woman that they actually caught and pinned down* even in formal register. ***FormalE***:40 says, "It is wrong to use *which* as though it could refer to entire clauses"; this would disallow the clausal-antecedent construction illustrated in (23ii), *Kim finished in 37 minutes, which was quite an achievement*, but again such a rule cannot be sustained, for the construction is regularly found in both formal and informal register. ***MasteringE***:85 similarly tells students to "beware of the loose use of *which* - whereby it refers not to a particular noun but to a whole clause, e.g. *They crowded the lift, which was foolish*". It becomes clear from the subsequent discussion on p. 112, however, that we are concerned here with what I have called a stylistic rule as opposed to a grammatical rule (cf. Section 1.2.3): what is unacceptable is not the construction as such, but uses of it where there is potential ambiguity as to the antecedent of *which*.

None of the texts deal satisfactorily with the contrast shown in (25) between the fused relative and the subordinate interrogative constructions. ***FormalE***:39, 41 analyses [*We asked him*] *whom he would choose to go in his place* and several similar examples as relative clauses instead of subordinate interrogatives (note the paraphrase 'we asked him the answer to the question "whom would he choose to go in his place?"'). ***LivingE***:6.133 makes the same mistake with [*Do you know*] *who broke his leg*[?] (cf. 'do you know the answer to the question "who broke his leg?"') - except that 'adjectival' is used rather than 'relative'. When fused relatives are cited at all, they are classified as noun clauses (e.g. ***LivingE***:56, 60; ***Facts***:17; ***FormalE***:108), but they are not distinguished from subordinate interrogatives such as (25ii), which are likewise noun clauses. Fused

relatives are not treated as relatives at all, for relatives are taken to be adjectival (cf., for example, ***Facts***:17): indeed, one objection to the traditional classification of subordinate clauses, which distinguishes noun vs adjectival vs adverbial clauses, is precisely that relatives do not fit into any one of these categories.

2.3 The parts of speech

2.3.1 Part of speech classification

Traditional grammars generally distinguish eight parts of speech: noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection. Some aspects of the classification could be improved, but there is much in it that is sound and carried over into modern grammars. The interjection is quite peripheral to the language system (some members of this class, such as *pssst* or *sh*, do not even have the normal phonological properties of words); reasonably, it receives little attention in the textbooks and need not be considered here. The rest, however, do merit attention, and a major purpose of this section will be to outline the grammatically distinctive properties of the parts of speech in order to provide a sounder basis for their differentiation than is offered by the notional definitions in the textbooks.

Before we begin examining the categories in turn, there are several general points concerning the classification that should be made.

(a) Kinds of criteria

Words are classified into parts of speech in order to account for differences in their grammatical behaviour: *aware* and *realize*, for example, are quite similar in meaning but very different in the way they enter into the structure of sentences, and it is on the basis of this grammatical difference that we assign them to the adjective and verb classes respectively. There is some correlation between the parts of speech and categories of meaning but, as we saw in Section 1.1.1, it is not close enough to provide defining criteria: these must be grammatical in nature. Three kinds of criteria are potentially relevant: (i) Function (e.g. nouns appear as head in phrases functioning as subject: *The king* [*died*]); (ii) Dependents (e.g. nouns distinctively take adjectives as dependents: [*the*]

new king); (iii) **Inflection** (e.g. the most distinctive property of verbs is that they inflect for tense, with present tense *take(s)* contrasting with past tense *took*, and so on). In addition, several of the parts of speech have associated with them distinctive word-forming affixes (e.g. *-ness* forms nouns from adjectives, *eager* > *eagerness*, *-ize* forms verbs from nouns, *hospital* > *hospitalize*, and so on): although these do not provide defining criteria, such morphological contrasts as that between *eager* and *eagerness* help increase students' awareness of the differences between the parts of speech.

(b) Overlapping classes

The second point is that many words belong to more than one part of speech. *Better*, for example, is an adjective in *That's a better idea*, an adverb in *They played better today*, and a verb in *He's trying to better his time for the half-marathon*. Because the defining criteria are grammatical, we cannot tell in such cases which class a word belongs to in any given instance without considering the grammatical context. Thus *better* is recognisable as an adjective in the first example because it is modifying the noun *idea*, as an adverb in the second because it is modifying the verb *played*, and as a verb in the third because it is in construction with the infinitival marker *to* (cf. Section 2.2.5) and has an object (*his time for the half-marathon*). Some of the texts mention this phenomenon (e.g. ***LangLit*** 1:22), but in general it receives far less attention than it deserves. Many of the texts (e.g. ***Lang***) devote considerable space to the morphological derivation of words of one class from those of another, the noun *abandonment* from the verb *abandon*, the adjective *heroic* from the noun *hero*, and so on. It would be worth emphasising in this context that as an alternative to adding a suffix English very often simply transfers a word without overt change from one part of speech to another, so that the noun *catch* is derived from the verb *catch* and, conversely, the verb *bottle* is derived from the noun *bottle*, and so on (cf., again, ***LangLit*** 1:146).

(c) Subclassification

Eight classes is not remotely enough to cater for the grammatical diversity of English words. The parts of speech are thus simply 'primary' classes, handling the very general likenesses between the words grouped together while leaving the differences to be accounted for at the next stage of analysis, that of subclassification. *Disappear* and *use* (as in *she used it all*), for example, are both verbs because they both inflect for tense,

but they belong to different subclasses, intransitive and transitive, because only the second can take an object (compare the above with **she disappeared it all*). Thus we cannot expect all the members of a part of speech class to be identical in all respects. And at the same time as we allow for differences between subclasses, we must also recognize the distinction between prototypical and non-prototypical instances discussed in Section 2.1.2.

(d) Open and closed classes

The parts of speech are commonly divided into two sets: verb, noun, adjective and adverb are #open classes, while pronoun, preposition, conjunction and interjection are #closed classes. The open classes are of very large membership and readily accommodate the addition of new words; the closed classes contain relatively few members (a comprehensive grammar would list them all) and are highly resistant to extension.

We will begin our survey with the verb, as this is the one with the richest inflectional system: inflectional criteria are relatively easy to apply and prototypical verbs are recognizable as such by virtue of carrying a past or present tense inflection. We will then turn to the noun, followed by the pronoun: although the pronoun is traditionally regarded as a distinct part of speech, it has much in common with the noun and would arguably be better analyzed as a subclass of noun. All basic clauses contain a verb and a noun (or pronoun), and the minimum construction consists of just these: *Kim* (or *she*) *laughed*, etc. We turn then to the other two open classes, adjectives and adverbs, which include among their most salient functions that of modifying nouns and verbs respectively. A major division within the adjective class is that between descriptive adjectives (*big, happy, good, red*, etc.) and the closed subclass of limiting adjectives (*the, a, this, that, every, some, my*, etc.). The tendency in modern grammars is to treat descriptive and limiting adjectives as distinct primary classes (adjectives and #determinatives respectively), and I shall have occasion to refer to them separately in our discussion of nouns and pronouns. The final two sections will look briefly at the remaining closed classes, prepositions and conjunctions.

2.3.2 Verbs

2.3.2.1 Verb inflection

The most important distinctive property of verbs is their inflection. All but a handful are analyzable in terms of the six forms presented in Section 1.1.2 and repeated here with *take*, *kill* and *hit* as examples:

Tensed forms	Past tense		*took*	*killed*	*hit*
	Present tense	3rd pers sg	*takes*	*kills*	*hits*
		Other	*take*	*kill*	*hit*
Non-tensed forms	Base		*take*	*kill*	*hit*
	Present participle		*taking*	*killing*	*hitting*
	Past participle		*taken*	*killed*	*hit*

The tensed forms may be regarded as the prototypical verb forms. These are the ones that are most sharply distinct from words belonging to the other parts of speech, and just about all main clauses other than imperatives have a tensed verb as their first or only verb. The non-tensed forms are most easily recognized when they follow a tensed auxiliary: [*can*] *take*, [*was*] *taking*, [*has*] *taken*.

We saw in Section 1.1.2 that the above paradigm is much simpler than the traditional one because it eliminates a great deal of syncretism. Some syncretism is retained, however: all verbs except *be* have syncretism between the non-3rd-singular present tense and the base form; many verbs, including all regular ones, also have syncretism between the past tense and the past participle; and a handful are like *hit* in having these latter two forms also syncretized with the base. Where there is syncretism between two or more forms, the question arises as to how we decide which form we have in any given instance. How, for instance, do we know that *killed* is a past tense form in (26i) but a past participle in (ii)-(iv)?

(26)	i	*they killed it*	[Past tense]
	ii	*they have killed it*	[Past participle]
	iii	*it was killed accidentally*	[Past participle]
	iv	[*those*] *killed in the raid* [*were French*]	[Past participle]

There is a fairly simple way of 'resolving' such syncretism: substitute a verb where the forms in question are overtly distinct, and see which one is required in the given context. Thus substituting *take* for *kill* in (26) gives *they took it, they have taken it, it was taken accidentally, [those] taken in the raid [were French]*: *took* is unambiguously the past tense, *taken* the past participle. This test would enable one to avoid such errors in the textbooks as the analysis of *[fifty-eight men] died* as a past participle (***Lang*** 2:163) or the instruction to the student to insert a past tense form in the frame *[he would be permitted to return home when he had]* ___ (***Activities***:167): the first context requires, for example, past tense *knew* as opposed to past participle *known*, while the second would accept past participle *eaten* but not past tense *ate*. To resolve the syncretism between the non-3rd-singular present tense and the base, the only verb we can substitute is *be*. For example, *[they] take [care]* and *[they should] take [care]* are seen to be respectively present tense and base because the former context requires *are*, the latter *be*: *[they] are [careful], [they should] be [careful]*. (Since the verb *be* enters into construction with a predicative, not an object, its substitution for the verb *take* necessitates an adjustment of the following context, but this has no bearing on the inflection.)

2.3.2.2 Auxiliaries and main verbs

The first subclassification of verbs is into auxiliary verbs and main verbs. The auxiliaries consist of: the modals *can, may, must, shall* and *will* (and two or three others), perfect *have*, progressive *be*, passive *be*, and #periphrastic *do*. They all determine the inflectional form of the following verb: the modals and *do* take a base form (*you may be right, do be careful*), *have* and passive *be* a past participle (*Kim has taken the car, the car was taken by Kim*), progressive *be* a present participle (*you are taking a long time*). The modal auxiliaries do not have the full set of inflectional forms found with other verbs (they lack non-tensed forms, have only a single present tense form, and *must* lacks a past tense); nevertheless, the fact that they have tensed forms justifies grouping them with other verbs at the primary level of classification.

The general definition of auxiliary is that it applies to a grammatically distinct word class whose members are dependent on main verbs and have the same kind of role as

inflections - they characteristically mark such verbal categories as tense, #aspect, mood and voice. At the language-particular level, their distinctive property is that they function in VP structure as dependents - in contrast to main verbs, which function as head.[12] Except in ellipsis, therefore, they do not occur alone, but require a following main verb. *She can swim*, for example, is grammatically complete, but *she can* is not: it is elliptical, with the missing main verb recoverable from the context (e.g. *she'll help you if she can*, with ellipsis of *help you*). *Be*, *have* and *do* belong to both auxiliary and main verb classes: they are auxiliaries in *she is sleeping*, *he has arrived*, *they did not hear you* (where there are followed by main verbs), main verbs in *she is happy*, *he has lots of patience*, *they did their best* (where there are not).

A VP thus consists of a main verb in head function, alone or accompanied by one or more dependents, and these - with the exception of *to* (which occurs in infinitival constructions) and *not* - are auxiliary verbs. *Do* does not normally combine with other auxiliaries. The remaining auxiliaries can combine, but their relative order is rigidly fixed, as follows:

modal - perfect - progressive - passive - main verb

Thus we find *may have taken*, not **has might take*; *has been taking*, not **is having taken*; *is being taken*, not **is being taking*.

A further important property of auxiliaries in English is that a number of non-basic clause constructions, such as interrogatives and negatives, require the presence of an auxiliary (or of main verb *be* or *have*). Thus *have you seen it?*, *she is not reading it*, etc. are grammatical, but **saw you it?*, **she reads it not*, and the like are not. The gap created by the absence of these latter forms is filled by auxiliary *do*: if we want to form the interrogative or negative of a clause containing no auxiliary (or *be*/*have*), we must

[12] The distinction between auxiliaries and main verbs has been the subject of a good deal of controversy in the last twenty years, with a number of linguists (including myself) arguing that the so-called auxiliaries are not in fact dependent on the following verb but, rather, function as head of the phrase they introduce. In the present context, however, I have thought it appropriate to adhere to the more conservative account (adopted in such works as Quirk et al. 1985), in accordance with my policy of not departing from the traditional analysis except where there is a very high measure of consensus among linguists.

add *do*: *did you see it?*, *she does not read it*.

Main verbs are further subclassified according to what kinds of elements they combine with in clause structure. A transitive verb is one with an object, e.g. *use*, as in *she used a stick*. A copulative verb is one with a predicative, e.g. *be*, as in *she is a genius*. An intransitive verb is one without an object (and, in the more frequent use of the term, without a predicative either), e.g. *disappear*, as in *she disappeared around six o'clock*, where *around six o'clock* is adjunct, not object (cf. Section 2.2.2.2). Further subdivisions can of course be made within these classes, but would be out of place here.

2.3.2.3 Tense

English has a two-term system of tense marked inflectionally in the verb, with past tense *took* contrasting with present tense *take*(*s*), and so on. As argued in Section 1.1.2, *will* is a modal auxiliary, not a tense auxiliary (and the same applies to *shall*): English has no future tense. The VP allows at most one tense selection, marked on the first (or only) verb in the phrase; all subsequent verbs in the phrase are non-tensed forms, as just noted in our discussion of auxiliaries. Thus *went*, *had gone*, *was going*, *couldn't have gone*, etc., are all past tense VPs, with *goes*, *has gone*, *is going*, *can't have gone* as their (3rd person singular) present tense counterparts.

The primary use of the past and present tenses is to locate in past and present time respectively the 'situation' (action, process, state or whatever) expressed in the clause: this is why the general terms 'past tense' and 'present tense' are applicable to them. But they have other uses too, and for this reason it is essential, as we emphasized in Section 1.1.1, not to identify or confuse the semantic category of time with the grammatical category of tense: they must be kept conceptually distinct so that we can describe the relatively complex relation between them.

Two secondary uses of the present tense need to be considered:

(a) The present tense is used for future time under the two conditions illustrated in:

(27) i *the match finishes tomorrow*
ii [*give me a call*] *when Tom arrives*

In main clauses, such as (27i), a present tense with future reference is used only when the situation is one that is arranged or scheduled (including schedules calculated from regular patterns in nature, as in *the sun sets at 6.15 tomorrow*). In subordinate clauses, as in (27ii), it can also be used without the schedule implication after various temporal and conditional conjunctions such as *when, before, after, as soon as, if*, etc. and after such verbs as *hope* ([*I hope*] *it rains tomorrow*).

(b) The present tense is used for past time situations in certain narrative styles, as in the following examples from Quirk et al. (1985:181-3): *Just as we arrived, up comes Ben and slaps me on the back as if we're life-long friends* (conversational narrative), *The crowd swarms around the gateway, and seethes with delighted anticipation; excitement grows, as suddenly their hero makes his entrance* (fictional narrative). This 'historic present', as it is often called, can be regarded as a kind of grammatical metaphor: the past time events are presented as though they were actually taking place at the time of speaking, in order to increase the vividness of the narrative. This use of the present tense, unlike (a) above, is mentioned in some of the texts (e.g. ***UsingBE*** 2:33) - sometimes in the context of a prescriptive rule excluding the mixing of historic presents and ordinary past tenses (e.g. ***LangLit*** 1:23, ***Corrections***:53).

There are likewise two secondary uses of the past tense that we should draw attention to:

(c) In indirect reported speech with a past tense verb of reporting, an 'original' present tense is often replaced by a past: compare

(28) i *Kim said, "It is too expensive"*
ii *Kim said that it was too expensive*

The direct speech construction in (28i) purports to give the exact words used, whereas the indirect speech construction in (28ii) reports in the speaker's own words the content of what was said - and the original present tense *is* is replaced by past tense *was*. This

phenomenon is commonly called #backshifting: *was* is the backshifted version of *is*. When backshifting applies to a present tense referring to the future as in (27) above the result may be a past tense with future time reference, as in [*Kim said*] *that the match finished tomorrow*. It should be emphasized that backshifting is not grammatically obligatory (contrast the account given in, for example, ***LivingL*** 6:128, ***EverydayE***:103). An original present tense can be retained if it is still temporally appropriate. Suppose, for example, that I am reporting Kim's utterance of the sentence ***The match starts on 10 November***. Provided 10 November is still in the future, I can report this as ***Kim says that the match starts on 10 November***. The backshifted ***Kim said that the match started on 10 November*** is not subject to such temporal constraints and can be used at any time. Thus (contrary to ***Mistakes***:6), ***He said he may swim today*** is not 'wrong': it is not ungrammatical and it doesn't violate any stylistic rule. It differs from *He said he might swim today* not in acceptability but in meaning, for unlike the latter it carries the implication that the potential for his swimming today still exists (which is why we could not add ***but he didn't***, as we could to the backshifted example).

(d) The past tense is used with present or future time reference in unreal conditional constructions - compare

(29) i *if we leave the footnotes out we can finish tonight* [Real]
ii *if we left the footnotes out we could finish tonight* [Unreal]

Grammatically the difference between (i) and (ii) is one of tense,[13] but the meaning difference is not one of time: it is a matter of the speaker's assessment of the likelihood of the condition's being fulfilled (a difference of modality). (i) presents our leaving out the footnotes as an open possibility, while (ii) presents it as a relatively remote one. This 'factual remoteness' use of the past tense is also found after the verb *wish* and the expression *it is time* (cf. [*I wish/it is time*] *they were here*, where the implication is that they are not).

[13] Traditional grammar also differentiates them in terms of mood, with (i) #indicative and (ii) subjunctive. The so-called past subjunctive, however, is obsolescent in Modern English (having coalesced with the indicative except for those who retain a distinction between *was* and *were*, as in *she was here yesterday* vs *if she were here today*), and it is doubtful whether it is appropriate to invoke this category in the analysis of examples like (ii).

There is one difference between present and past tense concerning their primary use that is worth drawing attention to here, for it underlies, I believe, a confusion found in some of the texts. When the clause expresses a state, a present tense indicates that the time of the situation **includes** the moment of speech: in *she lives in Berlin*, for example, the time of her living in Berlin includes the time of speaking but inevitably stretches back into the past and forward into the future. However, when the clause expresses a single event, a present tense indicates that it is **simultaneous** with the utterance. This naturally imposes severe constraints on what kind of events can be expressed in this way: I can say (in a cricket commentary) *he pushes it towards mid-on*, or (in a cookery demonstration) *I add a pinch of salt*, or (in a less restricted context) *I promise not to tell anyone*, because pushing the ball towards mid-on, adding a pinch of salt and promising not to tell anyone are all things that can be done in the time it takes to utter these clauses. But I cannot similarly say with a single event interpretation *she reads 'Middlemarch', they build an extension*; instead I would typically use the progressive (*she is reading 'Middlemarch', they are building an extension*), indicating that I am not considering the event in its totality but at some point when it is in progress - a point that is simultaneous with the moment of speaking. There is no similar constraint with the past tense: *she read 'Middlemarch', they built an extension* readily sustain the single event in the past interpretation. But of course this doesn't mean (contrary to ***ClassroomE*** 3:85, 5:59, ***SecEng*** 2:38) that the past tense of *are building* is *built*: grammatically the past vs present tense and progressive vs non-progressive contrasts are independent of each other, so that we have all four possibilities:

	Past tense	Present tense
Non-progressive	*built*	*build*
Progressive	*were building*	*are building*

2.3.3 Nouns

2.3.3.1 Distinctive properties of nouns

The most important criteria for nouns involve the functions they perform and the dependents they take.

First, nouns occur as head in phrases whose major functions are subject, object and predicative in clause structure and complement of a preposition:

(30)	i	*the dog [barked]*	[Subject]
	ii	*[he chased] the dog*	[Object]
	iii	*[that's] a fine dog*	[Predicative]
	iv	*[she gave it to] the dog*	[Comp of prep]

It is arguable that it is also under this heading that we should include the possessive construction, as in *the dog's [bone]*: see Section 2.3.3.2 below.

Second, within NP structure the noun as head takes such distinctive dependents as adjectives (*big dogs*), especially limiting adjectives (or determinatives: cf. Section 2.3.5.2) such as *the, a, some, this*, etc. (*the dog*), and - in post-head position - relative clauses (*the dog which was barking*: cf. Section 2.2.6). A significant difference between nouns and verbs is that nouns never take objects as dependent. Compare, then, verbal *they rejected the proposal* with nominal **their rejection the proposal*; the noun requires a preposition: *their rejection of the proposal* (cf. Section 1.1.1).

2.3.3.2 The possessive construction

The texts generally recognize three cases for English nouns: nominative, #objective [accusative] and possessive. I shall defer consideration of the nominative and accusative categories until Section 2.3.4.2, as I shall be arguing that they apply only to pronouns; in the present noun section, therefore, I shall be concerned simply with the possessive.

The grammatical status of expressions such as *the dog's* is in fact somewhat problematic. Traditionally, *dog's* is analysed as being in the possessive (or genitive) case, i.e. as an inflectional form of *dog*. It differs markedly from a prototypical inflection, however, in that the *'s* element is attached to an NP, rather than invariably to the noun head. Thus whereas the plural of *the King of England* is *the Kings of England*, with *s* attached to the head *King* (and hence clearly inflectional), the possessive is *the King of England's*, with *'s* attached to the whole NP *the King of England*. To a significant extent, therefore, the *'s* behaves as a 'postposition' (an element like a preposition except that it follows

the NP instead of preceding it). If we analyse it in this way, English nouns will have no case inflection at all; if we follow the more conservative treatment, we will have a two-term case system, #common case (*dog*) vs possessive case (*dog's*).

The possessive is normally formed by adding *'s*; the apostrophe alone is added when it follows a plural noun ending in *s* (*the men's faces* but *the boys' faces*). ***FormalE***:13 and ***Corrections***:9 mention that the simple apostrophe also occurs with certain singulars, as in *Jesus' [sayings]*. Neither text gives the rule correctly, however, for they fail to say that (leaving aside the fixed expressions *for goodness'/conscience' sake*) it applies only with proper names, and they likewise fail to say that normally (*Jesus'* is an exception) the noun has to end in the voiced sibilant sound found in, say, *Lyons*, as opposed to *Thomas*: compare *Lyons' work* and **Thomas' work*. (On the other hand, ***Corrections*** is over-restrictive in saying that the last syllable of the noun must not only end with a sibilant but also begin with one, this works for *Xerxes'* but would wrongly exclude *Socrates'*.) A detailed statement of this quite complex rule can be found in Quirk et al. 1985:320.

A distinction can be drawn between two functions of the possessive: determiner, as in *Kim's [home]*, and modifier, as in *[an] old people's [home]*. Determiner is the function prototypically filled by limiting adjectives (*the, a, this, my*, etc.), modifier is that prototypically filled by adjectives: *the black dog* has the structure determiner + modifier + head. (*The old people's home* is ambiguous: in the interpretation "the home belonging to the old people" *the old people's* is determiner, syntactically replaceable by *their*, but in the interpretation "the home for old people" *the* is determiner and *old people's* modifier.) There is a growing tendency for the apostrophe to be dropped in modifier function, as in *a boys college*. This is the punctuation given in the Australian Government *Style Manual* (Pitson, 1985) - though the effect is rather strange-looking with irregular plurals, as in *a womens college*.

The possessive is so called because possession is the most salient semantic relation that it expresses, but it has a wide range of other interpretations too, as we noted in Section 1.1.1: recall such examples as *a day's work, the trains' noise, a women's meeting*, etc. The association with possession belongs in the general definition of the category, but it

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should not be presented as though possession were invariably the meaning expressed.

2.3.3.3 Gender

English nouns, unlike those of such languages as French and German, do not have grammatical #gender. We will say that a language has grammatical gender when it has a system of noun classes with which dependent adjectives and/or pronouns agree. In French, for example, *livre* ('book') and *tasse* ('cup') belong to different gender classes because dependent adjectives take different forms (compare *un petit livre*, 'a little book', and *une petite tasse*, 'a little cup') and because there is a difference in the corresponding pronouns (*il* and *elle* respectively). Obviously English does not have gender agreement of adjectives; less obviously, it does not have gender agreement of pronouns either. This is because the choice between the pronouns *he*, *she* and *it* depends not on the grammatical classification of the #antecedent noun, but directly on the properties of the non-linguistic entity being referred to. If you ask: *Has your sister arrived?*, and I reply: *Yes, she has*, I use *she* because I am referring to a female - and if you ask: *Has the boss arrived?*, I will reply: *Yes, she has* or *Yes, he has* according as the person concerned is a woman or a man. The gender classifications found in the texts thus have to do not with grammatical properties of the nouns, but with their semantic properties - their meaning.

Once this distinction between grammatical gender and semantic gender is made, it is easy to resolve the disagreement we find among the texts as to how many genders we need for English. Some of the them propose a three-term classification, masculine vs feminine vs neuter (***LivingL*** 6:74, ***Let'sCom***:62, ***SecEng*** 2:36), while others have common gender as a fourth term (***ClassroomE*** 5:36, ***FormalE***:10, ***Guide***:17, ***LivingE***:187). A three-term classification is appropriate for the grammatical system of German or Latin, but it will not do for the semantics of English nouns: we need the common gender category to cater for numerous nouns such as *child*, *cousin*, *doctor*, *writer*, etc., which can be applied to either males or females.

The focus of attention in the textbook discussions of gender is on pairs of contrasting masculine and feminine nouns, such as *uncle* and *aunt*, especially those where the

feminine is morphologically derived from the masculine by suffixation, as in the pair *prince, princess*. A remarkable omission from these discussions is recognition of the fact that a significant number of words - *dog* is an obvious example - have two senses, one where they are masculine (as in *Is it a dog or a bitch?*) and one where they belong to the 'common' class (as in *Is that dog male or female?*). Thus *tiger* and *lion* (examples which occur again and again - e.g. ***LivingL*** 5:157, 6:74, ***Let'sUBE*** 5:53, ***Facts***:4, ***FormalE***:10, ***UsingBE*** 2:108) are simply listed as masculine in contrast to feminine *tigress* and *lioness*, although they clearly also have a common gender sense. (The latter is, moreover, probably the more frequent: the *Macquarie Dictionary* does not list the masculine gender sense for these words, though it does for *dog*.)

With the commendable exception of ***LivingE***, which has a lengthy and informed discussion of the issue (187-93), none of the texts display any sensitivity with respect to 'sexist' language, in spite of the vigorous public debate of the last decade and more. Thus ***UsingBE*** 2:108 lists *actor, author* and *poet* as masculine gender (whereas ***LivingE***:190 rightly observes that modern usage is to treat them as common gender), and ***Activities***:38 even gives *typist* as masculine, in contrast to feminine *typiste*! Furthermore the texts (even ***LivingE***:17) uniformly treat as incorrect the use of the pronoun they with a singular common gender sense, as in *Every person in the town took their belongings with them*. This reflects the non-variationist approach to prescriptivism criticized in Section 1.2.1, for such usage is clearly very widely accepted in informal register; ***OxGuide***:150 notes that it "is entirely acceptable in informal speech" and adds that it "is by no means uncommon in more formal contexts".

2.3.3.4 Subclassification of nouns

Virtually all the texts under consideration present a classification of English nouns into the categories #proper, #common, #abstract and collective (e.g. ***Guide***:15, ***LivingE***: 18, ***Lang*** 1:17, 2:6-7, ***SecEng*** 1:16-17). This, however, is rather like classifying humans into males, females, mothers and preschool-children: it fails to provide mutually exclusive classes based on a uniform set of criteria.

From a grammatical point of view we have initially just a two-way contrast between proper nouns and common nouns. Abstract nouns form a purely semantic class: it has not been grammaticalized in English (cf. Section 1.1.2), for there are no syntactic constructions distinguishing abstract nouns from concrete nouns. Grammatically, they simply belong among the common nouns. This is not to suggest that a consideration of abstract nouns has no place in a school English course, but the appropriate context for it would be that of word-formation and vocabulary development, not syntax. Collectives do have some syntactic relevance inasmuch as they provide exceptions to the normal rule of subject-verb agreement: because *jury*, for example, is collective, we could have either *has* or *have* in such a clause as *the jury ___ been deliberating for two days*. However, collectives are not in contrast with proper and common nouns: rather, they form a subclass on a dimension which cross-cuts the major one, for collectives can be either common, as in the *jury* example, or proper, as in *England now has/have little chance of avoiding the follow-on*, said of the English cricket team. (Notice, moreover, that several of the texts, as observed in Section 1.2.2, insist on a singular verb with a singular collective subject: if this rule were valid, collectives would again constitute a purely semantic class, one worth mentioning as a potential source of difficulty for subject-verb agreement.)

At the general level, proper noun is definable as a grammatically distinct subclass of noun whose members are characteristically associated with particular referents (people, places, etc.) by means of particular institutionalized acts of naming. There are thousands of people called 'Mary', but normally the name will have been given to them individually and formally registered. At the language-particular level, proper nouns and common nouns are distinguished by the way they combine with determinatives. Take a prototypical pair such as proper *Mary* versus common *girl*. *Mary* can form an NP on its own, as in *Mary was ill*, but *girl* cannot: **girl was ill*. Conversely, *girl* but not *Mary* can combine with (unstressed) *the* to form an NP: *the girl was ill*, **the Mary was ill*.

SeeEng 1:16 contrasts *Dad* and *father* as proper versus common, parallel to such pairs as *Douglas*, *boy*. There is certainly an interesting difference between them, but it is not the same as for the latter pair. *Dad* and *father* both belong to both classes.

They are common nouns in examples like *he forgot to ask his dad/father*, and they are proper nouns in *Dad/Father phoned to say he'd be late* (though they differ from prototypical proper nouns in that no institutionalized act of naming is involved). The difference between them is in part semantic (only *father* is used in the religious sense), in part sociolinguistic (e.g. *Father* as a proper noun is predominantly used by non-working-class adults or older children).

The textbook discussions of the proper/common contrast focus on its relevance to punctuation rather than grammar: proper nouns begin with a capital letter. The description of capitalization, however, would benefit from the recognition of a category of noun phrase (in the sense of Section 2.1.3) in addition to that of noun. For expressions like *Melbourne High School, St Andrew's Cathedral*, etc. are not (contrary, for example, to ***LangLit*** 1:4) words, hence not nouns: they are NPs. And if the phrase/word distinction is considered too advanced for the level at which the rule of punctuation is introduced, it would be better to talk of **proper names** rather than **proper nouns**. ***LangLit*** 1:5 goes on to say that in the sentence *When she goes to church, she usually attends St John's Church down the road* the first occurrence of the word *church* is a common noun, the second a proper noun (similarly ***SecEng*** 2:53), but there is no grammatical reason (and indeed no semantic reason either) for saying that the second occurrence is a proper noun. It derives its initial capital not from being itself a proper noun but from being part of a proper name - just as do both words in *Central Avenue*, where *central* is clearly not a noun of any kind.

2.3.4 Pronouns

2.3.4.1 Distinctive properties of pronouns

(a) Pronouns are like nouns in that they head phrases functioning as subject, object, predicative, complement of a preposition:

(31)	i	*you* [*mustn't tell Kim*]	[Subject]
	ii	[*Kim won't know*] *anybody*	[Object]
	iii	*who* [*am I?*]	[Predicative]
	iv	[*the knife with*] *which* [*she cut it*]	[Comp of prep]

(b) They are also like nouns in taking (most of them) relative clauses as modifiers: *we who have lived here all our lives, everything that he said, those to whom he was referring*.

(c) They differ from nouns in that they do not combine with the central determinatives (*the, a, some, every, no, this, my*, etc.): ***the he, *my that***. (In some, an original determinative has been incorporated into the pronoun by compounding as in *everybody*, which is clearly different from the determinative + noun phrasal construction *every body*; similarly, *nothing, someone, anybody*, etc.). Prototypically pronouns also exclude modifiers: in pre-head position *black pen*, but not ***black this***; *a rich person*, but not **rich someone* (rather, in this case, *someone rich*).

Because of properties (a) and (b), most modern grammars treat pronouns as a subclass of nouns rather than as a separate primary class. At the language-particular level, they will thus be defined as a subclass of noun distinguished from other nouns (common and proper) by property (c). (We observed above that prototypical proper nouns do not combine with unstressed *the* to form an NP - witness ***the Mary** [*is ill*]; however, unlike pronouns, they can take *the* when there is some modifier present, as in [*that's not*] *the Mary I was referring to*.)

The traditional definition of a pronoun is that it is a word used instead of a noun (cf. ***SecEng*** 2:146, ***LivingE***:4, ***MasteringE***:127, etc.). This works reasonably enough in examples like

(32) *Tom proposed to Liz but she turned him down*

where the pronouns *she* and *him* can be regarded as substitutes for *Liz* and *Tom* respectively. But, as usual, the definition does not work at the language-particular level once we go beyond such elementary examples. It is surely not by applying this definition that we recognize as pronouns such words as *everybody* [*laughed*], *nothing* [*happened*], *who* [*is Derek Jones?*], *it* [*looks as though she has missed the train*], *I* [*am Pat*] (hardly equivalent to *Pat is Pat*), and so on. Again, however, it can form the basis for a definition at the general level - or rather, for reasons we shall come to shortly, for a partial definition. In (32) *she* and *him* derive their interpretations from

their antecedents *Liz* and *Tom*, and when expressions are interpreted via an antecedent they are said to be used #anaphorically. As a (partial) general definition, therefore, we can say that the term 'pronoun' applies to a grammatically distinct class of nominals (i.e. nouns or noun-like words) which contains among its most central members words which are most characteristically used anaphorically.

Two points are worth making in connection with the concept of antecedent we have introduced here. The first is that in spite of its etymology (and contrary to ***Facts***:25), the antecedent can, under certain grammatical conditions, follow the pronoun, as in *If he has read the report, your husband will be aware of the problem*. Secondly, the antecedents of anaphoric pronouns are typically NPs rather than nouns. This is not apparent from (32), where *Liz* is both an NP and a noun (cf. Section 2.1.3), but it will be clear that in an example like *an old man came into the room but he didn't stay long* the antecedent of *he* is the whole phrase *an old man*.

The general definition proposed above is incomplete because it fails to take account of the characteristic use of such important words as *I* and *you*, whose interpretation derives directly from the speech (or writing) event: *I* refers to whoever is speaking (writing) and *you* to whoever is being addressed. The phenomenon whereby the interpretation of an expression depends on such features of the speech situation as who is speaking, who is being addressed, when and where the speech event is taking place (cf. the interpretation of *now* and *here*) is called #deixis, and though it is not catered for in the traditional definition, their use in deixis is as important a general property of pronouns as is their use in anaphora. We will therefore amend our general definition of pronoun so that the term applies to a grammatically distinct class of nominals which contains among its most central members words most characteristically used anaphorically or deictically.

2.3.4.2 Subclasses of pronoun

Seven subclasses of pronoun are standardly distinguished:

(a) #Personal pronouns: *I/me*, *you*, *he/him*, etc.; see Section 2.3.4.3 for an explanation of the term.

(b) Possessive pronouns: *mine*, *yours*, *hers*, etc.; note that *my*, *your*, *her*, by contrast are limiting adjectives (determinatives) - cf. Section 2.3.5.2.

(c) **Reflexive** pronouns: *myself*, *yourself*, *himself*, etc.

(d) Interrogative pronouns: *who*, *which*, *what*, etc.

(e) Relative pronouns: generally identical in form to the interrogatives, with the addition of *that*. As we noted in Section 2.2.6, not all relative words are pronouns, and the same applies to interrogative words (cf. the adverb ***where*** [*is she?*], or the limiting adjective *which* [*train are you taking?*]). These relative and interrogative constructions are better handled under clause level grammar than under the parts of speech.

(d) Demonstrative pronouns: *this*, *that* and their plural forms; these words are pronouns in examples like *this is mine*, but limiting adjectives when in construction with a head noun, as in *this book is mine*.

(e) Indefinite pronouns: *none*, the compounds *everybody*, *something*, etc., and such words as *some*, *any*, *enough*, which - like the demonstratives - belong to both pronoun and adjective (determinative) classes. (***Guide***:21 mistakenly puts *none* with the demonstratives.)

2.3.4.3 Person

The personal pronouns are so called because they are the most elementary class exhibiting contrasts of grammatical person: *I/me* and *we/us* are 1st person, *you* is 2nd person, and the others, *he/him*, etc. are 3rd person. The reflexive and possessive pronouns also have person contrasts, but they are morphologically more complex; relatives derive their person from their antecedent (cf. [*I,*] *who am* ..., [*you,*] *who are* ...); and other pronouns, like common or proper nouns, are all 3rd person.

1st and 2nd person represent the grammaticalization of speaker and addressee respectively. They are grammaticalized in that they are relevant to the grammatical rules of agreement between subject and verb and between pronoun and antecedent (cf.

*I am, you are, she is; I hurt myself/*me/*himself/him*). As usual, however, we must beware of identifying the grammatical and semantic categories, for a 3rd person form can be used to refer to the speaker/writer or to the addressee (cf. *The writer has to admit that ...; As the reader has probably noticed, ...*), and 2nd person *you* can be used to talk generally rather than specifically of the addressee (cf. the earlier *You could buy a bar of chocolate like this for less than 6d before the War*, spoken to someone not born then). Similarly it is a confusion to say (with ***MasteringE***:127) that *Bob* is 2nd person in *Hello, Bob*: it shares with *you* the semantic property of referring to the addressee, but it does not share any relevant grammatical property. Note, for example, that when proper nouns are used instead of *you* in talking to young children they are grammatically 3rd person, as in *Bob is feeling a bit sleepy, is he?*.

The terms '1st', '2nd' and '3rd' reflect the ordering of priorities in plural groups. The first question is whether the group contains the speaker/writer: if so, we have 1st person *we*; if not, we ask whether the addressee is involved. If the answer to this second question is 'yes', then we have 2nd person *you*; and if it is 'no', we have 3rd person.

The term 'person' does not imply that the reference is always to persons: *kitchen* belongs to the 3rd person category just as much as *doctor*. Confusion between the everyday concept of 'person' and the grammatical category 'person' is evident in ***Lang*** 2:123, ***LivingE***:15, ***Guide***:20, where 3rd person is defined as the person spoken about, and in ***Basics***:8, where the personal pronouns are said to be so called because they all refer to people and *it* is assigned to a class of impersonal pronouns.

2.3.4.4 Nominative and accusative case

Of the traditional case categories recognized for English, nominative and accusative (or objective) have to do primarily with function in clause structure, whereas the possessive normally expresses a relation within NP structure. Thus the contrast between nominative *he* and accusative *him* is associated with that between the clause functions subject and object, whereas the possessive in *Kim's house* indicates the

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relation between *Kim* and *house*, the head of the NP. We looked briefly at the possessive in Section 2.3.3.2; here we will be concerned with the cases associated with clause functions, nominative and accusative.

In English, the nominative-accusative distinction applies only to a subset of pronouns (the personal pronouns and *who/whoever*). Contrary to the prevailing view in the texts (e.g. ***Guide***:15, ***FormalE***:11, ***LivingE***:8, ***UsingBE*** 2:113), it does not apply to common and proper nouns. Thus we shall not want to say that in ***Pat saw the accident***, for example, *Pat* is nominative, *accident* accusative. Case and grammatical function are closely associated concepts, but they are not identical: case is, rather, one of the possible **markers**, or signals, of grammatical function. In a language like Latin, case is the primary marker of grammatical function, so that in ***Brutus Caesarem necavit***, 'Brutus killed Caesar', we interpret *Brutus* as subject and *Caesarem* as object by virtue of their respective nominative and accusative case endings - and if we change the order to *Caesarem Brutus necavit* this has no effect on the functions: nominative *Brutus* is still subject and accusative *Caesarem* still object. But in (Modern) English the situation is very different: the primary marker of grammatical function in clause structure is word order. Thus in ***Brutus killed Caesar*** we recognize *Brutus* as subject and *Caesar* as object by their position, and this time if we reverse the order we change the functions: in *Caesar killed Brutus* the subject is *Caesar*, the object *Brutus* (cf. Section 2.2.2.1). There is no justification for saying that the order reversal changes the case: the **forms** remain the same - and not just for these items, but for all (non-pronominal) nouns. To assign different cases to ***Brutus*** and ***Caesar*** in English is to confuse case with grammatical function (and to say, as in ***Guide***:18, that in ***John gave Jane his textbook*** the nouns *John*, *Jane* and ***textbook*** are respectively nominative, #dative and objective is to take this confusion one step further).

Let us turn now to pronouns, where we do of course have a distinction between nominative *I* and accusative *me*, etc. The rules for case assignment differ somewhat according to formality. In formal English, the subject and predicative select nominative (except in infinitival constructions: [*it is essential*] *for him to do it*), while the object and complement of a preposition select accusative. In informal English the forms *whom* and *whomever* are dropped, so that the nominative-accusative contrast

becomes confined to the personal pronouns, and within the latter the accusative replaces formal nominative under certain conditions: (a) in predicative function (*It is me* in place of formal *It is I*); (b) in subject function in various constructions where the verb (phrase) is ellipsed ([*Who said that?* -] *Me*; *Kim is older than me*). Somewhat different is the use of a nominative in coordinative constructions functioning as object or complement of a preposition: *they invited Kim and I*, *between you and I*, etc. (cf. Section 1.2.3). This is not so much a characteristic of informal register as a usage of certain speakers that is neutral as to register. It is uniformly condemned by the textbooks but is nevertheless widely used by many whose speech is not otherwise different from that of those using accusatives here.

One final note on terminology. In the scholarly literature, *I* and *me* are sometimes distinguished as nominative vs accusative (e.g. Curme, 1935), sometimes as #subjective vs objective (e.g. Quirk et al., 1985). It would be more consistent to choose one of these pairs instead of the mixed pair, nominative vs objective, that we find in the texts. Of the two pairs, I think that the former, although opaque, are preferable because the latter run the risk of creating a confusion between cases and functions. In spite of the important correlation between the cases and functions, they are clearly not in a one-to-one relation. We have seen, for example, that a pronoun in subject function takes accusative case in infinitival constructions ([*it's important*] *for them to be told*): 'objective' is not a helpful label here. And in informal register accusatives occur in predicative function (*it's me*): calling them 'objective' might encourage the fallacy that the formal version is inherently better (cf. Section 1.2.3).

2.3.5 Adjectives

2.3.5.1 Distinctive properties of adjectives

(a) The most distinctive feature of adjectives has to do with their function. Prototypical adjectives occur as head in phrases with two main functions, modifier in NP structure (the so-called #attributive use) and predicative in clause structure (the

predicative use):[14]

(33) i [*he handed me some*] *heavy* [*parcels*] [Attributive use]
ii [*the parcels are*] *heavy* [Predicative use]

In the first *heavy*, is part of the NP *some heavy parcels*: within this construction it serves to modify the head *parcels*. In the second *heavy* is operating in the structure of the clause: it is related to the subject NP *the parcels* by means of the copulative VP *are*. The textbooks tend to emphasize the attributive use at the expense of the predicative, but it is the two together that provide the best diagnostic for prototypical adjectives. This is because the modifier function can be filled by too wide a range of expressions for it to provide a sufficient condition for adjectivehood. Compare, for example, *a great actor* and *a boy actor*. *Great* and *boy* stand in the same relation to *actor*, and this we can handle by saying they are both functioning as modifier, but they are nevertheless different in important ways - as we see, in particular, when we switch to the predicative construction. Note then the contrast between, on the one hand, *this actor is great, these actors are great* and, on the other, *this actor is a boy, these actors are boys*. Such differences we can account for by analyzing *great* as an adjective, *boy* as a noun. The textbooks treat modifiers of both kinds as adjectives, thus analyzing as adjectives such nouns as *lightning* [*casualty*] (***Lang*** 2:39), *garden* [*bed*] (***LangLit*** 2:22), *butter* [*knife*] (***ExercisingE***:58) but this is not strictly in accordance with traditional grammar. Dictionaries, for example, do not list *boy* as an adjective - if they did they would have to do the same for every noun, for any noun can occur in modifier function, given an appropriate choice of head: witness *student grants, school activities, a federal government inquiry, the Hawke ministry* and so on. The texts in effect conflate the functional category of modifier with the class category of adjective; if, following Section 2.1.2, we make a systematic distinction between these two different kinds of concept, we can handle much more satisfactorily the relationship of partial likeness, partial difference in such a pair as *a great actor* and *a boy actor*.

[14] My use of 'predicative' as a noun naming the function (cf. Section 2.2.2.2) derives from this traditional use of 'predicative' as an adjective.

(b) Many adjectives have a set of three inflectional forms: *big, bigger, biggest*; *happy, happier, happiest*. This system is called #grade, and the inflectional forms are respectively #absolute, #comparative and #superlative. Other adjectives, too long to inflect (see Section 2.3.5.3), take 'analytic' comparatives and superlatives, i.e. constructions marked by the separate words *more* and *most*: *beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful*. More generally, prototypical adjectives are 'gradable'. Semantically this means that they denote a property that can be possessed in varying degrees, and grammatically it means that they inflect for grade and/or they take degree adverbs as modifiers (*very tall, rather big, unusually big, more interesting*). By no means all adjectives are gradable, however: the non-gradable ones include words like *anthropological, philatelic, statistical* (and, according to the prescriptive tradition, *perfect, unique, empty* and the like, though these do allow such degree modifiers as *almost*) - and most limiting adjectives. Moreover, the property of gradability does not distinguish adjectives from adverbs, for many of these are gradable too (cf. *very carefully*). It is for this reason that I have given priority to the functional criterion (a). Nevertheless, the present property provides an at times very useful means of distinguishing adjectives from nouns or verbs, because the degree adverbs *very* and *too* occur (in the relevant senses: 'to a high degree', 'to an excessive degree') with adjectives but not with nouns or verbs. Thus we have *very unsuccessful, very fond of her*, but not **some very failures, *he very loved her; too long, too expensive*, but not **its too length, *it cost too*.

2.3.5.2 Descriptive and limiting adjectives

Two major subclasses of adjective are traditionally distinguished: descriptive and limiting. Prototypical adjectives - *heavy, big, good, red*, etc. - belong to the descriptive subclass. Limiting adjectives are such words as *the, a, some, any, few, my*, etc. They do not normally function predicatively; and within NP structure they precede descriptive adjectives and arguably have a different function, determiner as opposed to modifier. The differences are such that many modern grammars treat limiting adjectives as a distinct part of speech (which we may call 'determinative', reserving 'determiner' for the function).

2.3.5.3 Grade

Many adjectives and adverbs select from the system of grade, with absolute *tall, beautiful* contrasting with comparative *taller, more beautiful* and superlative *tallest, most beautiful*. As the examples show, the comparative and superlative categories may be marked inflectionally (normally by the suffixes *-er* and *-est*), or analytically (i.e. by means of a separate word), by *more* or *most*. Very roughly, we can say that adjectives of one or two syllables inflect, while longer ones enter into the analytic constructions (for a fuller and more accurate account of the rules, see Quirk et al. 1985:461-3.)

The system is called 'grade' because we are concerned with location on some conceptual scale. The reason why the first term is called 'absolute' can be seen by considering the meaning of such a set as *Kim is young, Kim is younger than Pat, Kim is the youngest in the group*. Neither the comparative nor the superlative imply that Kim is young in an absolute sense: her position on the age scale is lower than that of Pat and the others in the group, but it is perfectly possible for them all to be old (they could be a group of old age pensioners). The comparative locates one individual or set on the scale relative to another, while the superlative indicates that an individual or set is located at the end position on the part of the scale covered by the members of some larger set.

The texts uniformly distinguish the comparative and superlative in terms of the contrast between two and more than two: e.g. "[The comparative] describes the difference between **two** people or things[; the superlative] describes the differences among **three or more** things" (***UsingBE*** 1:45; cf. also ***LivingL*** 6:144, ***Wa'chL*** 4:45, ***EverydayE***:78, ***ExercisingE***:34, etc.). It should be borne in mind, however, that this distinction applies only in certain contexts, most clearly '*X is the ... of ...*': *Kim is the taller of the two* vs *Kim is the tallest of them all*. Grammatically, an important difference is that the comparative, unlike the superlative, can enter into construction with *than* - and in this construction there is no restriction to two individual entities. Given four children, say, we can have - contrary to what is suggested by the textbook accounts - not only *Kim is the tallest* (*of the four children*), but also *Kim is taller*

than the other three children.

2.3.6 Adverbs

The adverb is the least homogeneous of the part of speech categories, containing such grammatically diverse words as *carefully, very, downstairs, then, only, however,* and so on.

It is best to start with adverbs as modifiers of verbs. The minimal declarative clause consists of a noun and a verb, as in *rain fell;* we can then expand this by adding a modifier – to the noun (*heavy rain fell*) or to the verb (*rain fell heavily*). As we see from this example, the modifier of the noun is (prototypically) different in form from the modifier of the verb, and this provides the basis for the distinction between adjectives and adverbs. If we then move from the modifiers of nouns and verbs to the modifiers of adjectives and adverbs, we find that to a significant extent the latter are the same as the modifiers of verbs: compare

(34) i [*a*] *sufficient* [*sum*] [Modifier of noun]
ii [*he didn't love her*] *sufficiently* [Modifier of verb]
iii [*a*] *sufficiently* [*humble apology*] [Modifier of adjective]
iv [*he didn't speak*] *sufficiently* [*clearly*] [Modifier of adverb]

We see that *sufficient* appears in (i), while *sufficiently* appears in all the others: it is this likeness between (ii)-(iv) that provides the rationale for the extremely broad definition that traditional grammar gives to the adverb – a word modifying a verb, an adjective or another adverb.

Many adverbs, however, do not appear in all three functions: *very* and *too* (in the sense 'excessively'), as we noted in Section 2.3.5.1, do not modify verbs, place adverbs like *downstairs* modify only verbs, and the modifiers of adverbs are more or less restricted to degree adverbs. This is what makes the adverb class a more heterogeneous one than the others.

Some measure of unity is given to it, however, by the fact that in all the positions

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where adverbs appear, in all the subclasses of adverb that can be distinguished grammatically, we find examples of the clearest type of adverb – the adverb that is derived from an adjective by suffixation of *-ly*. This then provides a useful diagnostic for adverbs: they either are themselves derived from an adjective by *-ly* suffixation or else are syntactically replaceable by such forms (as *rather* is replaceable by *remarkably* in *he's rather intolerant*, or *therefore* by *consequently* in *he had therefore resigned*).

There are some adjectives ending in *-ly* (*cowardly*, *princely*, etc.), but these are easily seen to be adjectives, not adverbs, by functional criteria. Compare, then, the adjective *cowardly* and the adverb *carefully*:

(35)	i *cowardly/*carefully behaviour*	[Modifier of noun]
	ii *his behaviour was cowardly/*carefully*	[Predicative]
	iii *he behaved carefully/*cowardly*	[Modifier of verb]

(35i) and (35ii) illustrate the attributive and predicative uses of adjectives discussed in Section 2.3.5.1: instead of adverbial *carefully* we need adjectival *careful* here. (35iii) by contrast is a function requiring an adverb: here we could not have *careful*. Similarly *lonely* (mistakenly classified as an adverb in ***Lang*** 2:88) is clearly an adjective: in *he felt lonely*, for example, where it is in predicative function, we could substitute *happy*, *jovial* and the like, not *happily*, *jovially*. (*Feel* as a copulative verb has a different meaning from transitive *feel*: compare copulative *he felt happy* with transitive *he felt his pulse carefully*.)

A few words belong to both adjective and adverb classes: *fast*, *hard*, *better*, and so on. One can tell whether a given instance of such a word is the adjective or adverb by replacing it by one or other of a pair like *careful*, *carefully*, where adjective and adverb are clearly distinct. Thus *fast* is an adjective in *a fast driver*, where it modifies a noun (cf. *a careful driver*), and in *they weren't fast enough*, where it is in predicative function (cf. *they weren't careful enough*), but an adverb in *she drove fast*, where it modifies the verb (cf. *she drove carefully*), and so on. ***LivingL*** 5:118 classifies the *well* of *is he well?* as an adverb, but it is here in predicative function

and is an adjective - compare *is he happy/*happily?*. (*Well* is usually an adverb, the adverbial counterpart of the adjective *good*, but it belongs to the adjective class when the meaning is 'in good health'.)

2.3.7 Prepositions

Prepositions prototypically occur with a following NP as complement: *in* [*the garden*], *with* [*little difficulty*], *to* [*Kim*]. The only other class of word entering into construction with an NP in a comparable way is the verb (cf. *weeded* [*the garden*], *had* [*little difficulty*], *knew* [*Kim*]), and verbs are easily distinguished from prepositions by their inflectional properties.

Preposition phrases appear in the structure of clauses (*she lives in Sydney*), NPs (*the son of a philosophy professor*), and AdjPs (*eager for recognition*). The preposition relates its complement NP to the verb, noun and adjective respectively.

The normal position for a preposition is before its complement - hence the prefix *pre-*. There are, however, several non-basic clause constructions departing from this normal order.

(a) One is where a relative or interrogative NP is moved to the front of the clause, leaving the preposition 'stranded': *which one are you referring to?*, [*the man*] *that she was talking to*. The zero relative construction (see Section 2.2.6), as in [*the man*] *she was talking to*, may be regarded as a special case of this.

(b) A second involves passivization. Prototypically passivization moves the object of an active clause into subject function (cf. Section 2.2.4), but it is also possible for it to move the complement of a preposition instead, and again the result is that the preposition is left stranded at the end. Compare active *this theory easily accounts for such exceptions* and passive *such exceptions are easily accounted for by this theory*. This 'prepositional passive' construction is largely restricted to cases where there is a close lexical relation between verb and preposition such that they form something akin to an idiom: *account for*, *rely on*, *refer to*, etc.

(c) A third involves an infinitival clause following an adjective of a small subclass containing *easy*, *difficult*, etc.: *she is easy to talk to*.

As noted in Section 1.2.1, the traditional prescriptive rule disallowing any departure from the basic preposition + NP order is unsound. It certainly does not apply in informal register. In formal register preference is very often given to the basic order (e.g. to *the people with whom he had discussed the matter* over *the people that he had discussed the matter with*), but it is by no means always so; see ***OxGuide***:166-8 for helpful discussion.

Many words in the preposition class also belong in the adverb class. *In*, for example, is a preposition in *she lives in Sydney*, an adverb in *she went in*. Such words are classified as prepositions when they have an NP complement, as adverbs when they do not (unless it is understood, as in constructions (b) and (c) above or the zero relative of (a): *in* remains a preposition in [*the house*] *they were living in*). Thus [*we walked*] *along* [*the beach*], [*he camped*] *near* [*the edge of the cold pit*] (mistakenly classified as adverbs in ***ClassroomE*** 6:100 and ***Lang*** 2:86 respectively) are prepositions by virtue of having the NPs *the beach* and *the edge of the cold pit* as complements. Note that the distinction we have been drawing between clause- and phrase-level grammar helps understand the traditional analysis here. In *we walked along the beach* and *we walked along*, for example, *along the beach* in the first and *along* in the second have the same clause-level function (that of adjunct, or modifier of the verb), but at phrase level *along* has a complement NP in the first but not in the second, and it is this phrase-level difference that explains its assignment to different classes in the two cases.

2.3.8 Conjunctions

There are two subclasses of conjunctions, coordinating and subordinating; they are better described separately than together, and it is arguable that they should be regarded as distinct parts of speech rather than subclasses of a single one.

The main coordinating conjunctions are *and*, *or* and *but*. They have the distinctive

property that they can join units of any 'level': words ([*a*] *black and white* [*terrier*]), phrases (*the boss and her husband*), or clauses (*Kim is going to Sydney and her husband will be joining her there soon*). A second significant property of *and* and *or* is that there is no grammatical limit to the number of units they can join (*Kim, Liz, Pat, Tom, ... , and Sue*).

Subordinating conjunctions serve to introduce subordinate clauses: [*I know*] *that* [*he is ill*], [*she wonders*] *whether* [*it is legal*], [*Kim stayed at home*] *because* [*she was unwell*]. They have no function within the subordinate clause itself: they simply serve to relate it to the larger construction. This is why relative words, for example, are not included in the conjunction class. Compare, say, the conjunction *that* in [*It may be*] *that he is ill* and the pronoun *who* in [*the man*] *who came to dinner*. There is a sense in which both may be said to introduce a subordinate clause, but whereas *that* here has no other role than this, *who* functions as subject of the subordinate clause and hence is a pronoun (more fully, an NP consisting of a pronoun as head). Or consider the following examples from *LivingE*:58, *however dull this book appears* [*it is full of useful information*] and *unless we have a more interesting book* [*we will not want to continue studying*]. Both *however* and *unless* are said to be conjunctions, but in fact *however* is an adverb, for it is functioning as degree modifier of *dull*: it is part of the AdjP *however dull* which is predicative complement of *appears*.

Some words belong to both the subordinating conjunction and preposition classes: *before*, for example, is a conjunction in *he died before he finished his thesis*, a preposition in *he died before the end of the year*. Simplifying somewhat (a fuller account would need to distinguish declarative and interrogative clauses, finites and non-finites), we can say that these words are conjunctions when they introduce clauses and prepositions when they have NP complements.

Part 3 CONCLUSION

My aim in this monograph has been to present a sample of a structural account of English grammar and to argue for this approach by contrasting it with that of traditional grammar. The paper is of course addressed to the English teacher and others in the field of education: I leave it to their experience and expertise to decide how the structural analysis given here could be adapted for use in textbooks or other teaching materials.

It will be clear from the survey of school texts undertaken here that although some of the essential principles of the structural approach stem from the early years of this century, to criticise the traditional approach is by no means to flog a dead horse. The texts examined represent a significant body of recent work and show that the approach still has a very considerable following in the area of school grammar: the detailed textual critique that I have given is intended to demonstrate the need to consider an alternative to this deeply entrenched tradition.

The descriptive content of the texts is open to criticism at three levels. At the first level, the objection is that they contain a remarkable number of errors relative to the traditional analysis that they purport to present: *lonely* is an adjective, not an adverb, [*fifty-eight men*] *died* is a past tense form, not a past participle, and so on. Individually such errors might be regarded as relatively trivial, but cumulatively they lend support to the claim that the categories are not satisfactorily defined. It would not have been appropriate to give an exhaustive listing of these errors, but I have thought it worth drawing attention to a fair number of those which involve the categories I have discussed: my intention has been to show how the alternative structural criteria given here for the categories provide a clear basis for recognising the errors as such.

At the second level, I accept the traditional descriptive categories but question the way they are defined or explained. For example, it is uncontroversial that noun and subject are valid descriptive categories for English, but it is not satisfactory to define the noun as the name of a person, place or thing and the subject as the performer of

the action expressed in the verb. I have argued that the weakness of notional definitions of this kind is attributable to a failure to distinguish between language-particular definitions and general definitions. A language-particular definition provides criteria for deciding which expressions in the language under investigation belong to the category, whereas a general definition provides criteria for naming categories whose detailed membership is already determined by the language-particular criteria. The traditional notional definitions typically provide the basis for general definitions, but when construed as language-particular definitions they frequently lead to wrong or indeterminate results. The reason why meaning-based definitions do not work satisfactorily at the language-particular level is that we do not normally have a one-to-one relation between categories of grammar and categories of meaning. The past tense is commonly used to locate the situation in past time, but it is not invariably used with this meaning (and it is not the only grammatical means of indicating past time), and similarly for other categories. Noun, subject, and the rest are categories of grammar, not categories of meaning: it follows that if we want to be able to tell which words in English are nouns or which expressions are functioning as subject, we must give a definition based on their distinctive grammatical properties. A high proportion of the traditional descriptive categories undoubtedly have a place in a grammar of English. The structural linguist is very far from wanting to reject traditional grammar in its entirety: there is, on the contrary, a great deal in it that is valuable. Much of Part 2 of the present paper is thus intended to give the teacher a better understanding of a number of these traditional categories by outlining the grammatical properties which distinguish them one from another.

At the third level, I argue that there are nevertheless ways in which the traditional set of categories can be improved. Besides leading to wrong or indeterminate results, the notional definitions fail to ensure that the categories are all valid for English. If future tense is defined as a form indicating future time we will naturally include a future tense in our description of English, but in fact English is better described as having a two-term tense system, contrasting just past and present. We must not assume that because a category is valid for Latin it will necessarily be valid for English too. Satisfactory general definitions need to incorporate a condition of grammaticalization: they will have the form 'Term X is applicable to a

grammatically distinct category such that ...', or words to that effect. This will ensure that a general category is not included in the grammar of a particular language unless there are grammatical properties distinguishing it from other categories in that language. The fact that the categories of traditional grammar have been handed down from generation to generation for such a long time should not absolve them from critical scrutiny: there are undoubtedly a number of respects in which the analysis can be improved - and simplified. The suggestions I have made under this heading are of two kinds. In the first place I have argued for certain changes in the description, notably a simplification of the verbal system and a revision of the concept of phrase and its relation to the clause. Secondly I have tried to clarify the nature of such traditional categories as those of abstract nouns or the various gender classes by showing that these are not strictly grammatical categories, but semantic ones with some relevance to rules of word formation.

Turning now to the prescriptive content of the texts, I have suggested that here too improvements could be made in the light of the findings and principles of modern descriptive linguistics. In the first place, much more attention should be given to the phenomenon of language variation. It is unsatisfactory to operate with a simple dichotomy of 'correct' versus 'incorrect' (or 'wrong'), with the former applying only to the most polished style of the formal register of the standard language; there is no justification for telling students that such informal but standard sentences as *Who are you referring to?*, as used in an informal speech situation, are wrong. Secondly, I have argued that prescriptions should be based on actual usage; again, there is no justification for saying that *which* should not be used in restrictive relative clauses, given that it is standardly used there in both formal and informal register. Thirdly, I have drawn a distinction between rules of grammar and rules of style. It is not necessarily important for the student to be able to apply the distinction, but the teacher should be aware of it because of its relevance to the explanation and justification of rules of grammar. In particular, it is important to see that where rules of grammar are concerned there will typically be no purely linguistic reason for preferring the standard construction over the non-standard, or the formal over the informal: it will, rather, be a sociolinguistic matter involving people's attitudes to the constructions as opposed to their intrinsic merits.

GLOSSARY

Numbers in square brackets index page references in the text; the symbol # before a term indicates that it has its own entry.

Abstract noun. Given in many of the texts as a subclass of noun; it is, however, a semantic category, not a grammatical one. [66-7]

Absolute. A term in the inflectional system of #grade, contrasting with comparative and superlative. For example, *big* is the absolute form, *bigger* the comparative form and *biggest* the superlative form. [76-7]

Accusative case. A grammatically distinct #case characteristically associated with the object, as opposed (for example) to the subject. In English it applies to only a handful of pronouns, with accusative *me, him* contrasting with #nominative *I, he*, and so on. [25, 29, 37-8, 40, 46, 63, 72-4]

Active voice. A category of the clause or VP contrasting with #passive voice. E.g. the clause *Kim had shot the intruder* is active while *the intruder was shot by Kim* is passive, and similarly the VP *had shot* is active while *had been shot* is passive. [4, 9, 10, 40, 44-6]

Actor. A semantic (not grammatical) category: it applies to the role in an action of the participant performing the action. E.g. in both *Kim shot the intruder* and *the intruder was shot by Kim* it is Kim who is the actor. The category is not relevant to the analysis of clauses which do not express actions – e.g. to such clauses as *Kim liked it*. [38, 40, 45]

Adjective. A grammatically distinct word-class containing among its central members the morphologically simplest words denoting properties or states; see Section 2.3.5.1 for the language-particular properties in English. [5-6, 28, 30-1, 39-40, 53-5, 65, 74-8, 80]

Adjunct. A function in clause structure contrasting with predicator, subject, object, predicative (and others not mentioned in this work). Adjuncts are grammatically optional elements and can occur with any verb (in contrast to objects, say, which occur only with #transitive verbs). In *however, he saw her again after lunch*, for example, *however, again, after lunch* are all adjuncts. [35-6, 41, 47, 59]

Adverb. A grammatically distinct word-class whose members are characteristically used to modify a verb, adjective or another adverb. In English prototypical adverbs are derived from adjectives by suffixation of *-ly* (e.g. *carefully* from *careful*) or are syntactically replaceable by adverbs formed in this way (as *soon* is replaceable by *shortly* in *it'll be ready soon*). [6, 30, 41, 51, 53, 77, 78-80, 81-2]

Agent. A grammatical function in the structure of #passive clauses corresponding to the subject of the active – e.g. *by Kim* in *the intruder was shot by Kim* (compare the active *Kim shot the intruder*). [44-5]

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Agreement. In such an example as *that dog eats too much* we say that the verb *eats* agrees in #person/#number with the subject *that dog* because if we change the person/number of the subject we must also change the person/number of the verb - compare *you/those dogs eat too much*. [29, 37, 40, 48, 65, 71]

Anaphora. The use of a pronoun or similar form where the interpretation derives from another expression in the text, called its antecedent. Prototypically, pronoun and antecedent are 'co-referential', i.e. refer to the same entity. E.g. in *Tom saw Jill but she didn't see him* there is an anaphoric relation between *she* and its antecedent *Jill* (which both refer to the person Jill) and between *him* and its antecedent *Tom*. [70]

Antecedent. See #anaphora. [50, 52, 65, 70-1]

Article. The term applying to *the* (the 'definite' article) and *a(n)* (the 'indefinite' article). They function as determiner in NP structure and belong to a larger class we have called #determinative. [6, 29]

Aspect. A grammatically distinct category of the verb or VP whose characteristic meaning has to do with the temporal flow or segmentation of the situation described in the clause (as opposed to #tense, where the characteristic meaning has to do with location in time). The clearest instance of an aspect in English is the progressive, as in *it was raining when I got off the plane*, where *was raining* is a progressive VP: we are concerned here not with the raining in its entirety but only with the segment occurring at the time when I got off the plane. The English perfect is also an aspect (though one not so sharply distinct from a tense). [58]

Attributive use. An adjective is said to be used attributively when it is functioning as modifier within the structure of an NP. E.g. *a big dog* illustrates the attributive use of *big* (in contrast to *that dog is big*, which illustrates its #predicative use). [74]

Auxiliary verb. A grammatically distinct subclass of verb whose members function as dependent of a main verb and characteristically serve the same kind of role as inflections, i.e. as markers of #tense, #aspect, #voice, #mood. [15, 30-1, 35, 44, 56, 57-9]

Backshifting. Where a verb which in direct speech would be in the present tense appears in the past tense under the influence of a past tense verb of reporting it is said to have undergone backshifting. E.g. if *I have to leave before lunch* is reported as *she said she had to leave before lunch*, backshifting applies to change present tense *have* to past tense *had*. [61]

Base form. An inflectional form of the verb so called because it is the morphologically most elementary or basic form: other forms derive from it by adding a suffix, changing the vowel, and so on. It is the form under which you would look up the verb as a whole in the dictionary - e.g. *take*, *be*, etc. as opposed to *taking*, *took*, *was*, *been* and the like. It subsumes the traditional present subjunctive, imperative and infinitive, which are not regarded as distinct forms of the verb in the analysis advocated here. [19, 47, 48]

Basic clause. A clause whose structure we describe directly, as opposed to non-basic clauses, which we describe in terms of the the way they differ from corresponding basic clauses. E.g. *Kim shot the intruder* is a basic clause, whereas negative *Kim didn't shoot the intruder*, passive *the intruder was shot by Kim*, interrogative *did Kim shoot the intruder?*, subordinate [*he says*] *that Kim shot the intruder*, coordinate *either Kim shot the intruder* [*or someone else did*], and so on are non-basic. [35, 38, 55]

Case. A cover term for such categories as nominative, accusative, genitive, etc. Prototypically the cases are inflectionally distinct categories of the noun (including pronoun); they form a mutually exclusive set, with some of them being characteristically associated with different functions in clause structure, as nominative (e.g. *I*) is characteristically associated with subject function, accusative (e.g. *me*) is characteristically associated with the (direct) object, and so on. [25, 37, 40, 72-4]

Clause. An expression, normally consisting of more than one phrase, whose structure is describable in terms of the functions predicator, subject, object, predicative, adjunct, etc. It may be coextensive with a sentence (*She arrived this morning* is simultaneously a sentence and a clause) or it may be merely part of a sentence (the sentence *She arrived this morning but her husband won't be here until tomorrow* consists of a sequence of two clauses). [28, 31-53, 81]

Clause type. The clause system (traditionally called 'sentence type') contrasting such categories as declarative, interrogative and imperative, distinct classes characteristically associated with different kinds of 'speech act' (statement, question and directive, respectively). [41-4]

Closed class. A grammatical word-class with a relatively small number of members which does not readily admit extension through the addition of new items. Preposition, conjunction, pronoun, auxiliary verb, etc. are closed classes (or subclasses), in contrast to noun, main verb, adjective, etc., which are #open. [55]

Collective noun. A subclass of noun (containing such words as *government, jury, committee*) whose members denote a collection of individuals; collective nouns are grammatically distinct in that for purposes of subject-verb #agreement they may be treated as plural even when they are formally singular, as in *the jury have been deliberating for five hours*. [23, 66-7]

Common case. The #case contrasting with genitive: *Kim* is common case, *Kim's* genitive. [63]

Common noun. A subclass of noun, contrasting with, and lacking the special grammatical properties of, #proper nouns and #pronouns. E.g. *girl* is a common noun, while *Kim* is a proper noun and *she* a pronoun. [66-8, 73]

Comparative. A category in the inflectional system of #grade applying to many adjectives and a few adverbs: *bigger* and *sooner* are comparative forms in contrast to absolute *big*, *soon* and superlative *biggest*, *soonest*. The term also applies to phrases marked by the separate word *more* rather than an inflection, as in *more beautiful*, *more quickly*. [76-7]

Complement. A grammatical function covering various dependents of a verb (#objects, #predicatives and certain less important types not mentioned in this work) or of a preposition (etc.). The major contrast is between complement and adjunct or modifier: a complement is structurally more closely related to the head than the latter. E.g. in *she saw him this morning* we analyse *him* as complement (more specifically object) and *this morning* as adjunct, and in *right into the cave*, a PP, *right* is modifier, *the cave* complement. [4, 11, 29, 39, 63, 68, 73, 80-1]

Complex clause/sentence. One containing a subordinate clause embedded within it. E.g. *the man who came to dinner stole the silver* is a complex clause by virtue of containing the subordinate clause *who came to dinner*. [34-5]

Compound word. One formed by joining together two stems (as opposed to a stem and an affix), as in *headmaster*, *tax-free*. [31]

Compound sentence. One consisting of two or more #main clauses, prototypically joined by a #coordinating conjunction: e.g. *We invited them but they weren't able to come*. [34-5]

Coordination. The construction where two or more units of equal grammatical status are joined together (as opposed to subordination, where the units are of unequal status, one subordinate, the other superordinate). The units may be words ([*you*] *can and must* [*do it*], phrases (*the boss or her deputy* [*will see you*]), or clauses (*I can't promise, but I'll do my best*). [15, 25, 32-4, 74]

Coordinating conjunction. A small class of words which join the units in a #coordination construction. The clearest examples are *and*, *or*, *but*. [32, 81-2]

Copulative clause/verb. A clause containing a #predicative (but no object), or the main verb of such a clause. E.g. *he was looking rather tired* is a copulative clause and *look* (as used here) is a copulative verb. Much the most frequent copulative verb is *be*, often called a 'copula', i.e. a link between the subject and the predicative complement with little meaning of its own. [39, 59]

Dative case. A grammatically distinct #case characteristically associated with the indirect object. In German *Ich gab ihm das Buch*, "I gave him the book", *ihm* is dative (contrasting with accusative *ihn* and nominative *er*); English, however, has no dative (contrary to some textbook accounts). [73]

Declarative. A grammatically distinct #clause type whose members are characteristically used to make statements. E.g. *she can swim* is declarative, in contrast to *can she swim?*, which is interrogative. [30, 35-6, 41-4]

Deixis. The use of a pronoun or similar form where the interpretation is determined by reference to such features of the utterance as the identity of speaker and addressee(s) and the time and place at which it takes place. The pronoun *I*, for example, is used deictically: it can refer to indefinitely many different people, but on any one occasion of use it normally will refer to whoever utters the sentence containing it. [70]

Dependent. A function in the structure of phrases contrasting with #head. The head is the major element, while dependents are subordinate to it. Prototypically, the head is grammatically obligatory and dependents optional, as in the NP *five young children who were playing in the park*, where *children* is head and *five*, *young*, *who were playing in the park* are all dependents. [15, 53]

Determinative. A word class consisting of words which function as #determiner in NP structure - words such as *the*, *a*, *my*, *each*, *some*, *this*, etc. (the last two also belong to the pronoun class). [55, 63, 69, 76]

Determiner. A function in the structure of the NP, a type of dependent characteristically associated with such categories as definiteness (compare definite *the dog* and indefinite *a dog*), number (singular *a dog* vs plural *several dogs*), etc. The determiner function is filled by determinatives (as in these examples) or by possessive phrases (as in *the boy's death*, where *death* is head, *the boy's* determiner). [6, 64, 76]

Exclamative. A grammatically distinct #clause type whose members are characteristically used to make exclamations. In English exclamatives are introduced by *how* or *what*: *how well she sings!*, *what a disaster it was!*. [41-4]

Finite clause/verb. A class of clause comprising all clauses containing a past or present tense verb, and also imperative clauses and the type of subordinate clause illustrated in [*it is necessary*] *that they both be told*. Traditionally, but not here, the term applies primarily to the verbs appearing in such clauses. [4, 18, 37, 46-9, 82]

Fused relative. A kind of #relative construction without a separate #antecedent. *Those who saw it* [*were very impressed*] is an ordinary relative construction with the antecedent *those* separate from the pronoun *who*, but in *what she did* [*was very impressive*] pronoun and antecedent are fused together in *what*. [49, 51-53]

Gender. Many languages have a system of grammatical gender, such that adjectives agree in gender with the noun they modify and/or pronouns agree with the noun serving as #antecedent. English has no grammatical gender; if we speak of gender here at all it will be purely semantic, with nouns classified as masculine, feminine, common or neuter on the basis of their meaning. [65-6]

Genitive case. A grammatically distinct case one of whose most salient uses is to express possession. [63]

Grade. Prototypically an inflectional system of adjectives contrasting #absolute (e.g. *big*), #comparative (*bigger*) and #superlative (*biggest*). [76-8]

Grammaticalization. The creation and development of a distinct grammatical category out of an originally semantic category: e.g. the grammatical category of tense may be said to represent the grammaticalization of the semantic category of time. Typically, as in this example, the process leads to a situation where there is no longer a one-to-one relation between grammatical form and meaning. [14, 19, 43, 67, 71, 84]

Head. A function in the structure of phrases: the major element to which other parts of the phrase (dependents) are subordinate. In the following examples, the head is underlined: *very big, several articles of the constitution, ready for battle*. [28, 31]

Imperative. A grammatically distinct #clause type whose members are characteristically used to issue directives (requests, commands, etc.). In English the verb appears in the #base form and the subject *you* is omissible: *be careful!, don't hurt yourself!*. Many languages (but not English) have a distinct imperative verb inflection. [18-9, 35, 41-4, 47-8, 56]

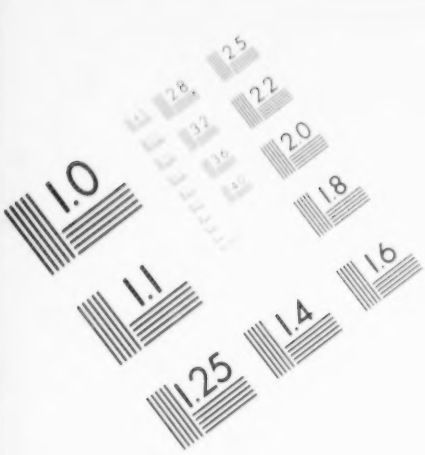
Indicative. A grammatically distinct mood of the verb or VP characteristically used in factual assertions and contrasting with such other moods as subjunctive and imperative. English has no imperative mood and only a minor and residual subjunctive and hence no real need for an indicative category. [18, 61n]

Infinitive. In traditional grammar the term is applied to an inflectional form of the verb, but it is not in fact distinct from the traditional imperative and present subjunctive, so that it is not recognised as a verbal category in this monograph. The term 'infinitival' is applied to a major subordinate clause construction containing a base form of the verb, prototypically preceded by the marker *to*: e.g. [*I'd like*] *to see it*. [18-9, 23-4, 48, 73, 81]

Inflection. The phenomenon whereby a verb, noun or the like has different forms according to the syntactic properties it carries in a given instance - e.g. the verb *take* has the form *took* when it carries the past tense property, the form *taking* when it has the present participle property, the noun *dog* has the form *dog* when it is singular and the form *dogs* when it is plural, and so on. [7, 15, 18-9, 29, 54, 56-7, 76, 80]

Interrogative. A grammatically distinct clause type whose members are characteristically used to ask questions. In English they are marked (in #main clauses) by positioning the subject after the #tensed verb (e.g. *have you seen it?*) and/or by the presence of one of the special interrogative words, *who, what*, etc. (*what do you want?*). [30, 35-6, 41-4, 51-2, 58, 71, 80, 82]

Intransitive clause/verb. A clause having no #object (and, in the usage adopted here, no #predicative), or the main verb of such a clause. E.g. *she was eating* is an intransitive clause, and *eat* (as used here) is an intransitive verb. [55, 59]



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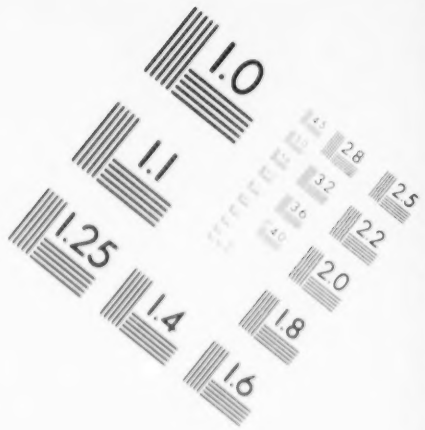

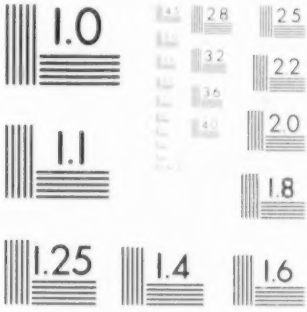

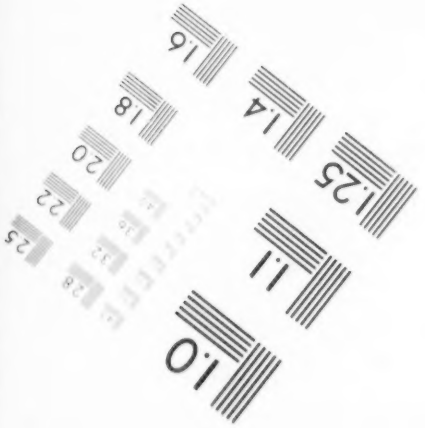

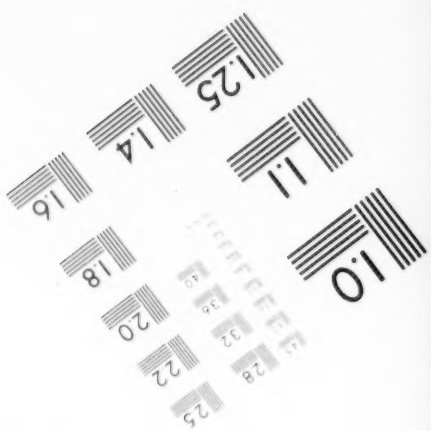

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Main clause. A clause which, unlike a subordinate clause, is not embedded within any larger clause. E.g. *I know why she left*, used as a sentence, is a main clause, but *why she left* is not. [8, 11, 33, 35, 47]

Main verb. The head verb in a VP, contrasting with auxiliary verbs, which function as dependents in VP structure. In [*she*] *had been reading* [*his letters*], for example, *reading* is the main verb, while *had* and *been* are auxiliaries. [15, 57-9]

Modal auxiliary. A subclass of auxiliary verb whose members are characteristically used to express various kinds of #modality. The central modals in English are *can*, *may*, *must*, *will* and *shall*. [15-7, 57-9]

Modality. A semantic category prototypically involving the concepts of possibility or necessity. *He arrived yesterday* is unmodalised: an assured factual statement; *he may/must/will have arrived yesterday*, *perhaps/surely he arrived yesterday* and the like are modalised, expressing some modal qualification to the assertion. [17]

Modifier. A grammatical function in the structure of phrases, one kind of #dependent. In *the black dog*, *the* is determiner, *black* modifier and *dog* head. Prototypically a modifier serves semantically to restrict the applicability of the head: *black dog* is applicable to a more restricted range of entities than *dog* alone. [6, 28, 30-1, 64, 69, 74-5, 78-9]

Mood. A category of the verb or VP, marked inflectionally or by auxiliaries. The neutral mood is the indicative, contrasting with such special moods as subjunctive, imperative, etc. The coalescence of formerly distinct forms in English has meant that there is scarcely any basis for postulating a mood system for the present-day language. [18, 58, 61n]

Morphology. That part of the grammar which deals with the form of words; contrasts with #syntax. [31]

Nominative case. A grammatically distinct #case characteristically associated with the subject, as opposed to the object. In English it applies to only a handful of pronouns, with nominative *I*, *he* contrasting with accusative *me*, *him*, and so on. [25, 29, 37-8, 40, 63, 72-4]

Noun. A grammatically distinct word-class containing among its most central members words denoting concrete objects. See Section 2.3.3.1 for the language-particular properties. [4-7, 19, 29, 31, 39, 41, 53-5, 62-74, 75, 78]

Non-finite clause/verb. A clause that is not #finite - one that is #infinitival (e.g. [*I want*] *to see it*) or participial (i.e. has a #participle as its first or only verb, e.g. [*those*] *living nearby* [*were evacuated*]). Traditionally, but not here, the term applies primarily to the verbs appearing in such clauses. [18, 46-9, 82]

Non-restrictive relative clause. A kind of #relative clause that is pronounced as a separate intonation unit and presents the information expressed in it as separate from the main message - e.g. [*Kim,*] *who had just returned from New York,* [*was suffering from jet-lag*]. [49-52]

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Number. The system contrasting singular and plural: *dog* has singular number, *dogs* has plural number. [7, 18, 29, 40, 48]

Object. A grammatically distinct function in clause structure which in a basic clause expressing an action normally identifies the #patient - e.g. *the tiger* in *Kim shot the tiger*. See Section 2.2.2.2 for language-particular properties. [6, 11, 28-9, 32-7, 39-41, 44, 47, 52, 55, 57, 59, 63, 68, 72-3]

Objective case. An alternative term for what is here called #accusative case. [63, 73]

Open class. A class (or subclass) of words having a large number of members and readily accommodating the addition of new ones as the language develops. Noun, verb, adjective and adverb are open classes (whereas preposition, conjunction, etc. are #closed classes). [55]

Participle. A distinct inflectional form of the verb which in some of its uses has some functional resemblance to an adjective - e.g. in [*people*] *living here* [*are disadvantaged*] the participle *living*, or rather the participial clause *living together*, functions as modifier of the noun *people*, which is one of the major functions of adjectives. There are two participles in English: present (*taking*) and past (*taken*). [15, 18, 44, 47, 49, 56-7]

Parts of speech. The traditional term for word-classes - noun, verb, adjective, etc. [11, 28, 51, 53-82]

Passive voice. A category of the clause or VP contrasting with active voice. E.g. the clause *Kim was killed by Pat* and its VP *was killed* are passive in contrast to active *Pat killed Kim* and its VP *killed*. In clauses expressing an action the subject characteristically identifies the patient (the passive participant) in the passive voice and the actor (the active participant) in the active voice. [4, 9-10, 15, 38, 40-1, 44-6, 57-8, 80]

Patient. A semantic (not grammatical) category: it applies to the role in an action of the participant undergoing the action. E.g. in both *Kim shot the intruder* and *the intruder was shot by Kim* it is the intruder who is the patient. [38, 40, 44]

Perfect. The #aspect expressed in English by the auxiliary *have* + a past participle. E.g. *has taken* is the perfect counterpart of *takes*. [15, 57-8]

Periphrastic auxiliary. The auxiliary *do*, as used in constructions like *do you like it?*, *he didn't understand*: *do* here has no meaning of its own, but is inserted to satisfy the syntactic condition that these constructions contain an auxiliary (or else *be* or *have*). [57]

Person. The system contrasting 1st person (*I/we*, characteristically used to refer to the speaker, or a group containing the speaker), 2nd person (*you*, characteristically used to refer to the addressee(s), or a group containing the addressee(s)), and 3rd person (other nominal forms). [4, 18, 48, 71-2]

Personal pronoun. The subclass of pronouns consisting of *I*, *you*, *he*, etc.; so called because they are the most elementary pronouns to which distinctions of #person apply. [38, 70-2]

Phrase. A grammatical unit consisting of a head element alone or a head accompanied by one or more dependents. E.g. in *the big dog was barking fiercely* there are three phrases: *the big dog*, *was barking*, and *fiercely*. [29-30, 46, 68, 81]

Plural. A term in the system of number, contrasting with singular: *books* is plural in contrast to singular *book*. [7, 23]

Possessive. The construction marked in English prototypically by *'s* and expressing a variety of semantic relations, of which possession is among the most salient, as in *Kim's clothes*. [4, 12, 25, 63-5, 71]

Predicative complement. A grammatically distinct function in clause structure, the complement of copulative verbs such as *be*, *remain*, *seem*, etc., as in [*she was*] *a genius/brilliant*. [35-7, 39-41, 47, 57, 59, 63, 68, 73-5, 79]

Predicator. The function in clause structure filled by the VP; in *she had read the report*, the predicator is *had read*. 32-3, 35-6, 47]

Preposition. A #closed class of words containing such items as *at*, *in*, *of*, etc. They prototypically take NPs as dependents and do not inflect. [211-3, 26, 30, 41, 49, 63, 68, 73, 80-2]

Progressive. The #aspect expressed in English by the auxiliary *be* + a present participle. E.g. *was raining* is the progressive counterpart of *rained*. [57-8]

Pronoun. A closed subclass of noun whose most central members are characteristically used #anaphorically and/or #deictically. In English they differ from other nouns in that they do not combine with the #articles and similar determiners. [51, 55, 63, 65, 68-74]

Proper noun. A subclass of noun contrasting with common noun (and with pronoun) - e.g. *Kim* is a proper noun, *woman* a common noun. Prototypically proper nouns serve as proper names, names assigned to particular individuals by some institutionalised act of naming. [50, 66-8, 73]

Register. A variety of language used in a particular type of context (often contrasted with dialect, a variety used by a particular group of speakers) - e.g. formal English or informal English. [21-2, 37, 46, 52, 74, 81, 85]

Relative clause. A subclass of #subordinate clause, prototypically functioning as modifier in NP structure and containing a special overt or understood element related #anaphorically to the head of the NP. In *the man who came to dinner* [*stole the silver*], the head noun *man* is modified by the relative clause *who came to dinner*, where the special pronoun *who* has *man* as its antecedent. [6, 25, 29, 49-53, 63, 69, 71, 80, 82]

Restrictive relative clause. A kind of #relative clause: one intonationally bound to the head noun it modifies and characteristically serving to restrict the denotation or application of the head noun, as *people who live in Sydney* applies to a smaller set than *people* on its own; contrasts with #non restrictive relative clause. [49-52]

Sentence. The largest unit of syntax; a sentence has the form of a clause (e.g. *The train was late.*) or of a sequence of clauses (prototypically related by #coordination, as in *Either the train was late or he had overslept.*). [311-5, 41]

Sentence type. The traditional term for what we are here calling #clause type. [41]

Simple sentence. One containing just a single clause (e.g. *Kim has arrived.*); contrasts with #complex or #compound sentence. [34-5]

Singular. A term in the system of #number: *book* is singular in contrast to plural *books*. [6, 23]

Subject. A grammatically distinct function in clause structure which in a basic clause expressing an action characteristically identifies the #actor - e.g. *Kim* in *Kim hit them*; the language-particular properties are given in Section 2.2.2.1. [4, 6, 9-10, 28-30, 32, 34-8, 42, 44-8, 63, 72-4]

Subjective case. An alternative term for what is here called #nominative case. [74]

Subjunctive. A grammatically distinct #mood characteristically associated with #subordinate clauses and with non-factuality. The category is now obsolescent in English grammar. [18-20, 48, 61n]

Subordinate clause. A clause that is embedded within some larger clause - e.g. *that he is ill* in *I know that he is ill*. [12, 33-6, 46, 48-9, 51-2, 60, 68, 82]

Subordinating conjunction. A small class of words used to introduce a subordinate clause - e.g. *that, whether, if, until, as*, etc. when used in this way (as in *I regret that I told him*). [33, 46, 81-2]

Superlative. A category in the inflectional system of #grade applying to many adjectives and a few adverbs: *biggest* and *soonest* are superlative forms in contrast to absolute *big, soon* and comparative *bigger, sooner*. The term also applies to phrases marked by the separate word *most* rather than an inflection, as in *most beautiful, most quickly*. [76-7]

Syncretism. The phenomenon where two or more inflectional forms of the same verb, noun, etc., are not overtly distinct - e.g. the past tense and past participle of the verb *kill* are syncretised, in that both have the form *killed* (whereas there is no such syncretism with the verb *take*, where the corresponding forms are overtly distinguished as *took* and *taken*). [18-9, 56-7]

Syntax. The branch of grammar dealing with the way words combine to form sentences, as opposed to #morphology, which deals with the structure of words. [31]

Tense. A system of the verb or VP where the contrasting terms characteristically serve to locate the situation expressed in the clause in different time spheres. English has a two-term system, marked by distinct inflections, past (*took*) vs present (*takes*). [4, 6-8, 11-2, 14-6, 18-9, 22, 24, 26, 54, 58-62]

Tensed form/verb. A form of the verb which carries a tense inflection - e.g. past tense *were* but not the participles *being*, *been* or the base form *be*. [19, 36-7, 42, 47-8, 56-7]

That relative. A #relative clause introduced by *that*, as opposed to *who*, *which*, etc. or #zero - e.g. [*the book*] *that he was reading*. [49-50]

Transitive clause/verb. A clause having an #object, or the main verb of such a clause. E.g. *she was eating an apple* is a transitive clause, and *eat* (as used here) is a transitive verb. [4, 39, 55, 59]

Unreal conditional. A construction prototypically involving *if* where both main and subordinate clause have a past tense verb expressing factual remoteness rather than past time - e.g. *if we left tomorrow we could see Kim* (in contrast to the real conditional *if we leave tomorrow we can see Kim*). [12, 61]

Verb. A grammatically distinct word class containing amongst its morphologically simplest members words expressing actions. In English verbs are distinguished by their relatively rich inflection. [4-6, 18-9, 53-62, 78]

Voice. The system contrasting #active and #passive. [18, 44-6, 58]

Zero relative. A #relative clause without any overt relative pronoun, etc. - e.g. [*the book*] *he was reading* (as opposed to [*the book*] *which/that he was reading*). [49-51, 80]

FURTHER READING

For readers wishing to look further into the field of linguistics, there are now quite a number of good introductions to the subject. They include: Akmajian, A., Demers, R.A. & Harnish, R.M., Linguistics: an introduction to language and communication (MIT Press, 2nd edn, 1984); Crystal, D., What is linguistics? (Edward Arnold, 4th edn, 1985); Fromkin, V. Rodman, R., Blair, D. & Collins, P., An introduction to language (Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 2nd Australian edn, 1989); Hudson, R.A., Invitation to linguistics (Martin Robertson, 1984); Lyons, J., Language and linguistics: an introduction (Cambridge University Press, 1981); Yule, G., The study of language (Cambridge University Press, 1985).

The fullest recent grammar of English, as mentioned in the text, is Quirk et al. 1985. Two studies of English grammar which adopt the framework used in Part 2 of this monograph are Huddleston, R., Introduction to the grammar of English (Cambridge University Press, 1984) and English grammar: an outline (Cambridge University Press, 1988). Among the many more popular works on English may be mentioned two recent books by D. Crystal: The English language (Penguin, 1988) and Rediscover grammar (Longman, 1988).

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